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ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY

Ancient and Modern.

BY THE

HON: ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER.

H. Corbould. *C. Heath.*

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ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

A COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ANCIENT AND MODERN GEOGRAPHY,

AND

A TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

WITH TWO MAPS.

BY ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER,

LORD WOODHOUSELEE,

Late Lord Commissioner of Justiciary in Scotland; and formerly Professor of Civil History and Greek and Roman Antiquities, in the University of Edinburgh.

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The following historical works have been carefully abridged for the use of Schools and Young People; no facts of importance have been omitted; and they are printed in a uniform size with this volume:

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PREFACE.

THE following Work contains the outlines of a course of Lectures on General History, delivered for many years in the university of Edinburgh, and received with a portion of the public approbation amply sufficient to compensate the labours of the author. He began to compose these Elements principally with the view of furnishing an aid to the students attending those lectures; but soon conceived, that by giving a little more amplitude to their composition, he might render the work of more general utility. As now given to the public, he would willingly flatter himself, it may be not only serviceable to youth, in furnishing a regular plan for the prosecution of this most important study, but useful even to those who have acquired a competent knowledge of general history from the perusal of the works of detached historians, and who wish to methodize that knowledge, or even to refresh their memory on material facts and the order of events.

In the composition of these Elements, the author has endeavoured to unite with the detail of facts so much of reflection, as to aid the mind in the formation of rational views of the causes and consequences of events, as well as of the policy of the actors; but

he has anxiously guarded against that speculative refinement which has sometimes entered into works of this nature, which, professing to exhibit the philosophy or the spirit of history, are more fitted to display the writer's ingenuity as a theorist, or his talents as a rhetorician, than to instruct the reader in the more useful knowledge of historical facts.

As the progress of the human mind forms a capital object in the study of history, the state of the arts and sciences, the religion, laws, government, and manners of nations, are material parts, even in an elementary work of this nature. The history of literature is a most important article in this study. The author has therefore endeavoured to give to each of these topics its due share of attention; and in that view they are separately treated, in distinct sections, at particular periods.—Of the defects of this work the author is more sensible than perhaps any other person can be. Of any merits it may possess beyond those of simplicity and perspicuity, those are the best judges who have an extensive knowledge of the subject, and who know the difficulty of giving general views, and of analysing a science so comprehensive and complicated as UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

The present edition has undergone an attentive revisal; and, it is hoped, is thereby rendered less unworthy of the reception which the public indulgence has already given to it.

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INTRODUCTION.

1. The value of any science is to be estimated according to its tendency to promote improvement, either in private virtue, or in those qualities which render man extensively useful in society.—Some objects of pursuit have a secondary utility; in furnishing rational amusement, which, relieving the mind at intervals from the fatigue of serious occupation, invigorates and prepares it for fresh exertion. It is the perfection of any science, to unite these advantages, to promote the advancement of public and private virtue, and to supply such a degree of amusement, as to supersede the necessity of recurring to frivolous pursuits for the sake of relaxation. Under this description falls the science of History.

2. History, says Dionysius of Halicarnassus, is 'Philosophy teaching by examples.' The superior efficacy of example to precept is universally acknowledged.—All the laws of morality and rules of conduct are verified by experience, and are constantly submitted to its test and examination. History, which adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others, furnishes innumerable proofs, by which we may verify all the precepts of morality and of prudence.

3. History, besides its general advantages, has a distinct species of utility to different men, according to their several ranks in society, and occupations in life.

4. In this country it is an indispensable duty of every man of liberal birth, to be acquainted, in a certain degree, with the science of politics; and History is the school of politics. It opens to us the springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions, and fall of empires. It points out the reciprocal influence of government and of national manners; it dissipates prejudices, nourishes the love of our country, and directs to the best means of its improvement: it illustrates equally the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the danger, on the one hand, of uncontrolled liberty, and, on the other, the debasing influence of despotic power.

5. It is necessary that the study of History should be prosecuted according to a regular plan; for this science, more perhaps than any other, is liable to perversion from its proper use. With some it is no better than an idle amusement; with others it is the food of vanity; with a third class it fosters the prejudices of party, and leads to political bigotry. It is dangerous for those who, even with the best intentions, seek for historical knowledge, to pursue the study without a guide; for no science has been so little methodized. The sources of prejudice are infinite; and the mind of youth should not be left undirected amidst the erring, the partial, and contradictory representations of historians. Besides the importance of being able to discriminate truth from falsehood, the attention ought to be directed only to useful truths. Much danger arises from the perusal of memoirs, collections of anecdotes, &c. for many of those works exhibit the most depraved pictures, weaken our confidence in virtue, and present the most unfavourable views of human nature.

6. There are many difficulties which attend the attempt of forming a proper plan of study, and giving an instructive view of General History. Utility is to be reconciled with amusement, prejudices are to be encountered, variety of taste to be

consulted, political opinions balanced, judgment and decision exercised on topics keenly controverted. The proposer of such a plan ought, therefore, to be possessed equally of firmness of mind, and moderation of sentiment. In many cases he must abandon popularity for the calm approbation of his own conscience. Disregarding every partial and inferior consideration, he must direct his view solely to the proper end of all education, *The forming of good men, and of good citizens.*

7. The object and general purpose of the following Course, is to exhibit a progressive view of the state of mankind, from the earliest ages of which we have any authentic accounts down to the close of the seventeenth century,—to delineate the origin of states and of empires, the great outlines of their history, the revolutions which they have undergone, the causes which have contributed to their rise and grandeur, and operated to their decline and extinction.

For these purposes it is necessary to bestow particular attention on the manners of nations, their laws, the nature of their governments, their religion, their intellectual improvements, and their progress in the arts and sciences.

PLAN OF THE COURSE.

Two opposite methods have been followed in giving Academical Lectures on the study of history; the one exhibiting a strict chronological arrangement of events, upon the plan of Turselline's Epitome; the other a series of disquisitions on the various heads or titles of public law, and the doctrines of politics; illustrated by examples drawn from ancient and modern history.—Both these methods are liable to objection: the former furnishes only a dry chronicle of events, which nothing connects together but the order of time; the latter is insufficient for the most important purposes of history, the tracing events to their causes, the detection of the springs of human actions, the display of the progress of society, and of the rise and fall of states and empires: finally, by confining history to the exemplification of the doctrines of politics, we lose its effect as a school of morals.

In the following lectures, we hold a middle course between these extremes, and endeavour, by remedying the imperfection of each, to unite, if possible, the advantages of both.

While so much regard is had to chronology as is necessary for shewing the progress of mankind in society, and communicating just ideas of the state of the world in all the different ages to which authentic history extends, we shall, in the delineation of the rise and fall of empires, and their revolutions, pay more attention to the connexion of *subject* than that of *time*.

In this view, we must reject the common method of arranging General History according to epochs, or eras. When the world is viewed at any period, either of ancient or of modern history, we generally observe one nation or empire predominant, to whom all the rest bear, as it were, an under part, and to whose history we find that the principal events in the annals of other nations may be referred from some natural connexion. This predominant empire or state it is proposed to exhibit to view as the principal object, whose history therefore is to be more fully delineated, while the rest are only incidentally touched when they come to have a natural connexion with the principal.

The Jewish history, belonging to a different department of academical education, enters not into the plan of these lectures; though we often resort to the sacred writings for detached facts illustrative of the manners of ancient nations.

In the ancient world, among the profane nations, the Greeks are the earliest people who make a distinguished figure, and whose history is at the same time authentic.

The Greeks owed their civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians. The Grecian history is therefore properly introduced by a short account of these nations, and of the Assyrians, their rivals, conquered at one time by the Egyptians, and conquerors afterwards of them in their turn.

Rise of the independent states of Greece, and singular constitution of the two great republics of Sparta and Athens.

The war of Greece with Persia induces a short account of the preceding periods of the history of that nation, the rise of the Persian monarchy, the nature of its government, manners, and religion.

The Grecian history is pursued through all the revolutions of the nation, till Greece becomes a province of the Roman empire.

Political reflections applicable to the history of

the states of Greece.—Progress of the Greeks in the arts.—Of the Greek poets, historians, philosophers.

Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention.

Origin of the Romans.—Nature of their government under the kings.—Easy substitution of the consular for the regal dignity.—Subsequent changes in the constitution.—Progress to a democracy.—Extension of the Roman arms.—Conquest of Italy.—Wars with foreign nations.

The Punic wars open a collateral view to the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

Success of the Roman arms in Asia, Macedonia, and Greece.—Opulence of the republic from her conquests, and corruption of her manners.—The civil wars, and ruin of the commonwealth.

Particulars which mark the genius and national spirit of the Romans: education,—laws, literary character,—art of war,—public and private manners.

Rome under the emperors:—artful policy by which the first emperors disguised their absolute authority;—decline of the ambitious character of the Romans;—easy submission to the loss of civil liberty;—the military spirit purposely abased by the emperors;—the empire divided becomes a languid body without internal vigour;—the Gothic nations pour down from the North; Italy conquered successively by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, and Lombards;—extinction of the Western empire.

The manners, genius, laws, and government of the Gothic nations, form an important object of inquiry, from their influence on the manners and policy of the modern European kingdoms.

In the delineation of Modern History, the leading objects of attention are more various; the scene is

oftener changed; nations, too, which for a while occupy the chief attention, become for a time subordinate, and afterwards re-assume their rank as principal; yet the same plan is pursued as in the department of Ancient History; the picture is occupied only by one great object at a time, to which all the rest hold an inferior rank, and are taken notice of only when connected with the principal.

Upon the fall of the Western Empire, the Saracens are the first to distinguish themselves by the extension of their conquests, and the splendour of their dominion.

While the Saracens extend their arms in the East and in Africa, a new empire of the West is founded by Charlemagne.—The rise and progress of the monarchy of the Franks.—The origin of the feudal system.—State of the European manners in the age of Charlemagne.—Government, arts and sciences, literature.

As collateral objects of attention, we survey the remains of the Roman empire in the East; the conquests and settlements of the Normans; the foundation and progress of the temporal dominion of the church of Rome; conquest of Spain by the Saracens.

The conquest of England by the Normans solicits our attention to the history of Britain. Retrospective view of the British history, from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government in England.—Observations on the government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons.

Collateral view of the state of the continental kingdoms of Europe, during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries.—France under the Capetian race of monarchs.—Conquests of the Normans in Italy and Sicily.—State of the Northern kingdoms of Europe.—The Eastern empire.—Empire of Germany.—Disputes of supremacy between the popes and the emperors.

The history of Britain still the principal object of attention.—England under the kings of the Norman

line, and the first princes of the Plantagenet branch.—The conquest of Ireland under Henry II. introduces an anticipated progressive view of the political connexion between England and Ireland down to the present time.—As we proceed in the delineation of the British history, we note particularly those circumstances which mark the growth of the English constitution.

At this period all the kingdoms of Europe join in the crusades.—A brief account is given of those enterprises.—Moral and political effects of the crusades on the nations of Europe.—Origin of chivalry, and rise of romantic fiction.

Short connected sketch of the state of the European nations after the crusades.—Rise of the house of Austria.—Decline of the feudal government in France.—Establishment of the Swiss republics.—Disorders in the Popedom.—Council of Constance.

The history of Britain resumed.—England under Henry III. and Edward I.—The conquest of Wales.—The history of Scotland at this period intimately connected with that of England.—View of the Scottish history from Malcolm Canmore to Robert Bruce.—State of both kingdoms during the reigns of Edward II. and III.—The history of France connected with that of Britain.—France itself won by Henry V.

The state of the East at this period affords the most interesting object of attention.—The progress of the Ottoman arms retarded for a while by the conquests of Tamerlane and of Scanderberg.—The Turks prosecute their victories under Mahomet the Great, to the total extinction of the Constantinopolitan empire.—The constitution and policy of the Turkish empire.

France, in this age, emancipates herself from the Feudal servitude; and Spain, from the union of Arragon and Castile, and the fall of the kingdom of the Moors, becomes one monarchy under Ferdinand and Isabella.

The history of Britain is resumed.—Sketch of the history of England down to the reign of Henry VIII.—Of Scotland during the reigns of the five Jameses.—Delineation of the ancient constitution of the Scottish government.

The end of the fifteenth century is a remarkable era in the history of Europe. Learning and the sciences underwent at that time a very rapid improvement; and, after ages of darkness, shone out at once with surprising lustre.—A connected view is presented of the progress of literature in Europe, from its revival down to this period.—In the same age, the advancement of navigation, and the course to India by the Cape of Good Hope, explored by the Portuguese, affect the commerce of all the European kingdoms.

The age of Charles V. unites in one connected view the affairs of Germany, of Spain, of France, of England, and of Italy. The discovery of the New World, the Reformation in Germany and in England, and the splendour of the fine arts under the pontificate of Leo X. render this period one of the most interesting in the annals of mankind.

The pacification of Europe, by the treaty of Catteau Cambresis, allows us for a while to turn our attention to the state of Asia. A short sketch is given of the modern history of Persia, and the state of the other kingdoms of Asia, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; the history of India; the manners, laws, art and sciences, and religion of the Hindoos; the history of China and Japan; the antiquity of the Chinese empire, its manners, laws, government, and attainments in the arts and sciences.

Returning to Europe, the attention is directed to the state of the continental kingdoms in the age of Philip II. Spain, the Netherlands, France, and England, present a various and animated picture.

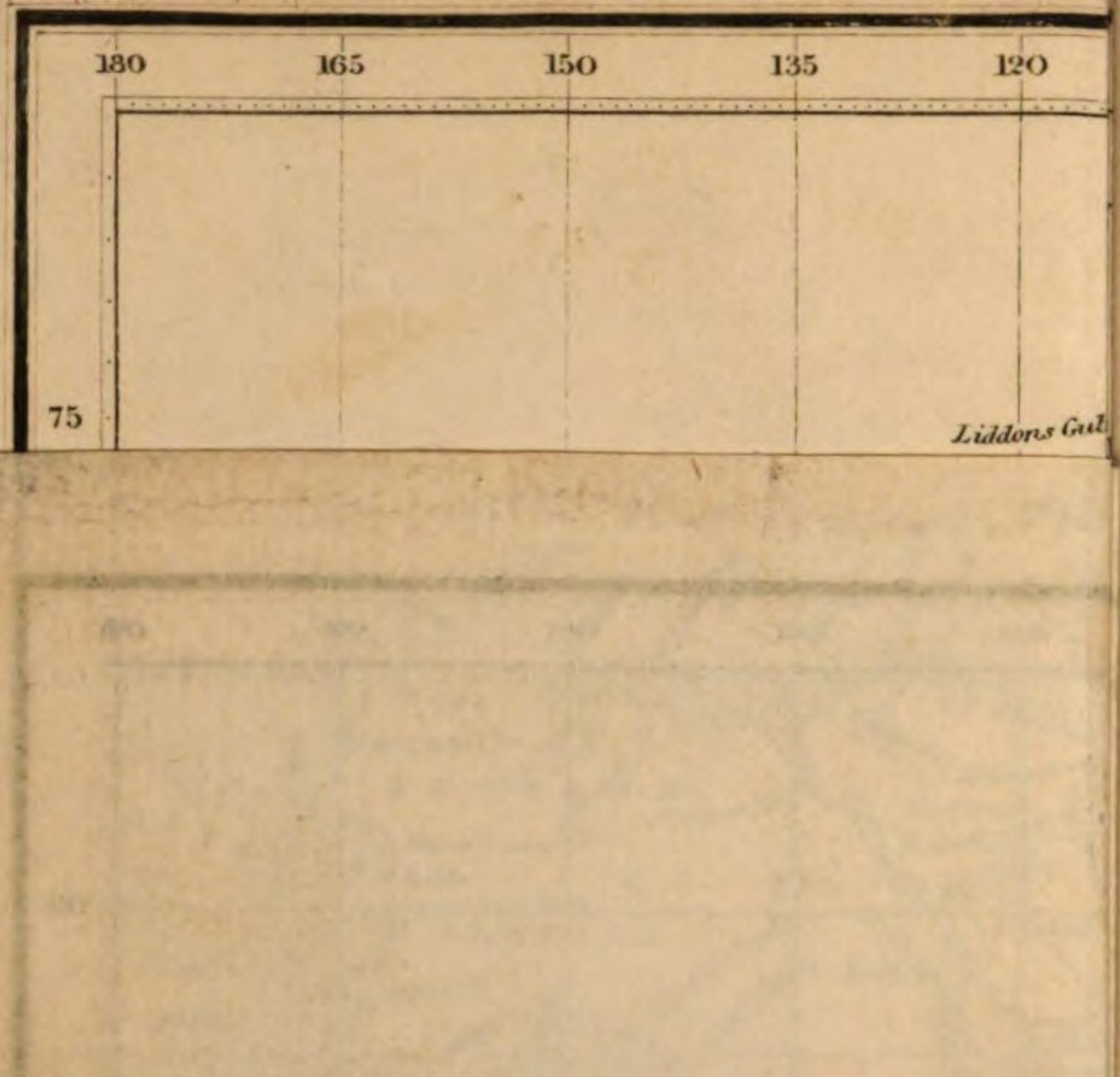
England under Elizabeth. The progress of the Reformation in Scotland. The distracted reign of Mary Queen of Scots.—The history of Britain pur-

sued without interruption down to the Revolution, and here closed by a sketch of the progress of the English constitution, and an examination of its nature at this period, when it became fixed and determined.

The history of the Southern continental kingdoms is brought down to the end of the reign of Louis XIV.; of the Northern, to the conclusion of the reigns of Charles XII. of Sweden, and of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy.

We finish this view of Universal History, by a survey of the state of the arts and sciences, and of the progress of literature in Europe, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The chronology observed in this view of Universal History, is that of Archbishop Usher, which is founded on the Hebrew text of the sacred writings; and this because it has been most generally adopted by the writers both of our own and of foreign nations. A short table of chronology is subjoined to these heads, for the ease of the student; and maps are added of the world as known to the ancients and as known at the present time, delineated according to the best authorities.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ANCIENT HISTORY.

PART FIRST.

I.

It is a difficult task to delineate the state of mankind in the earliest ages of the world. We want information sufficient to give us positive ideas on the subject; but as man advances in civilization, and in proportion as history becomes useful and important, its certainty increases, and its materials are more abundant.

Various notions have been formed with respect to the population of the antediluvian world and its physical appearance; but as these are rather matters of theory than of fact, they scarcely fall within the province of history; and they are of the less consequence, that we are certain the state of those antediluvian ages could have had no material influence on the times which succeeded them.

The Hebrew text of the sacred writings informs us, that a period of 1656 years elapsed between the creation of the world and the deluge.

The books of Moses afford the earliest and only authentic history of the ages immediately following the deluge.

About 150 years after that event, Nimrod (the Belus of profane historians), the grandson of Ham, the son of Noah, built Babylon, on the river Euphrates; and Assur, the son of Shem, and grandson

of Noah, built the city of Nineveh, on the river Tigris, which became the capital of the Assyrian empire.

Ninus the son of Belus, and his queen Semiramis, are said to have raised the empire of Assyria to a higher degree of splendour.

From the death of Ninias, the son of Ninus and Semiramis, down to the revolt of the Medes under Sardanapalus, a period of 800 years, there is a chasm in the history of Assyria and Babylon. This is to be supplied only from conjecture.

The earliest periods of the Egyptian history are equally uncertain with those of the Assyrian.—Menes is supposed the first king of Egypt; probably the Misraim of the Holy Scriptures, the grandson of Noah, or, as others conjecture, the Osiris of Egypt, the inventor of arts, and the civilizer of a great part of the Eastern world.

After Menes or Osiris, Egypt appears to have been divided into four dynasties, Thebes, Thin, Memphis, and Tanis, and the people to have attained a considerable degree of civilization: but a period of barbarism succeeded under the Shepherd-kings, a body of marauders from Ethiopia, who invaded and conquered the country, and divided it amongst their chiefs, each governing independently a separate province. The dominion of these chiefs is said to have subsisted for 259 years, when they were expelled by Aonosis, a prince of Upper Egypt, and forced to retreat into Syria and Palestine. But what time elapsed until the final termination of their dominion by the famous Sesostris is uncertain. Sesostris is supposed to have lived about 1650 years A.C., and to have united the separate principalities into one kingdom, regulated its policy with admirable skill, and distinguished himself equally by his foreign conquests, and by his domestic administration.

II.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE NATURE OF THE FIRST GOVERNMENTS, AND ON THE LAWS, CUSTOMS, ARTS, AND SCIENCES, OF THE EARLY AGES.

§ 1. The earliest government is the Patriarchal, which subsists in the rudest periods of society.

The patriarchal government leads by an easy progress to the monarchical.

The first monarchies must have been very weak, and their territory extremely limited. The idea of security precedes that of conquest. In forming our notions of the extent of the first monarchies, we are deceived by the word King, which, according to modern ideas, is connected with an extent of territory and a proportional power.—The kings in Scripture are no more than the chiefs of tribes. There were five kings in the vale of Sodom. Joshua defeated in his wars thirty-one kings, and Adonizedec threescore and ten.

The regal office was in all probability at first elective. The transmission of the sceptre to the heir of the last monarch, arises in time, from the experience of the mischiefs attending frequent elections, and the disorders occasioned by ambitious men aspiring at that dignity.

The first ideas of conquest must have proceeded from a people in the state of shepherds, who, necessarily changing their pastures, would probably make incursions on the appropriated territory of their neighbours. Such were the Arabian or Phœnician invaders, who, under the name of Shepherd-kings, conquered Egypt. But kingdoms so founded could have little duration. Laws and good policy, essential to the stability of kingdoms, are the fruit of intellectual refinement, and arise only in a state of society considerably advanced in civilization.

The progress from barbarism to civilization is

slow; because every step in the progress is the result of necessity, after the experience of an error, or the strong feeling of a want.

§ 2. *Origin of Laws.*—Certain political writers have supposed, that in the infancy of society penal laws must have been extremely mild. We presume the contrary to have been rather the case; as the more barbarous the people, the stronger must be the bonds to restrain them: and history confirms the supposition, in the ancient laws of the Jews, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and Gauls.

Among the earliest laws of all states are those regarding marriage; for the institution of marriage is coeval with the formation of society. The first sovereigns of all states are said to have instituted marriage; and the earliest laws provided encouragements to matrimony.

Among the ancient nations, the husband purchased his wife, by money, or personal services. Among the Assyrians, the marriageable women were put up to auction: and the price obtained for the more beautiful was assigned as a dowry to the more homely.

The laws of succession are next in order to those of marriage. The father had the absolute power in the division of his estate. But primogeniture was understood to confer certain rights.

Laws arise necessarily and imperceptibly from the condition of society; and each particular law may be traced from the state of manners, or the political emergency which gave it birth. Hence we perceive the intimate connexion between history and jurisprudence, and the light which they must necessarily throw upon each other. The laws of a country are best interpreted from its history; and its uncertain history is best elucidated by its ancient laws.

§ 3. *Earliest methods of authenticating Contracts.*—Before the invention of writing, contracts, testaments, sales, marriages, and the like, were transacted in public.—The Jewish and the Grecian

histories furnish many examples.—Some barbarous nations authenticate their bargains by exchanging symbols or tallies.—The Peruvians accomplished most of the purposes of writing by knotted cords of various colours, termed *Quipos*.—The Mexicans communicated intelligence to a distance by painting.—Other nations used an abridged mode of painting, or hieroglyphics.—Before the use of writing, the Egyptians used hieroglyphics for transmitting and recording knowledge: after writing, they employed it for veiling or concealing it from the vulgar.

§ 4. *Methods for recording Historical Facts, and publishing Laws.*—Poetry and song were the first vehicles of history, and the earliest mode of promulgating laws. The songs of the bards record a great deal of ancient history: the laws of many of the ancient nations were composed in verse.

Stones rude and sculptured, *tumuli* and mounds of earth, are the monuments of history among a barbarous people; and columns, triumphal arches, coins, and medals, among a more refined.—These likewise illustrate the progress of manners and of the arts.

§ 5. *Religious Institutions.*—Among the earliest institutions of all nations, are those which regard religious worship. The sentiment of religion is deeply rooted in the human mind. An uninstructed savage will infer the existence of a God, and his attributes, from the general order and mechanism of nature; and even its temporary irregularities lead to religious veneration of the unknown Power which conducts it.

Before conceiving the idea of a Being utterly imperceptible to his senses, a savage would naturally seek that Being in the most striking objects of sense to which he owed his most apparent benefits. The sun, extending his beneficial influence over all nature, was among the earliest objects of worship. The fire presented a symbol of the sun. The other celestial bodies naturally attracted their share of

veneration, and the storm and the tempest had also their votaries.

The symbolical mode of writing led to many peculiarities of the idolatrous worship of the ancient nations. Animals, symbolical of the attributes of Deity, became gods themselves. The same god, represented by different animals, was supposed to have changed himself into different forms.—The gratitude and veneration for men whose lives have been eminently useful, joined to the belief of the soul's immortality, led to the *apotheosis* of heroes.—Many excellent reflections on idolatry and polytheism are found in the book called 'The Wisdom of Solomon.'

The priesthood was anciently exercised by the chief or monarch; but as an empire became extensive, the monarch exercised this office by his delegates; and hence an additional source of veneration for the priesthood. The priests were the framers and the administrators of the laws.

§ 6. *Arts and Sciences of the Ancient Nations.*—The useful arts are the offspring of necessity; the sciences are the fruits of ease and leisure. The construction of huts, of weapons of war, and of hunting, are the earliest arts. Agriculture is not practised till the tribe becomes stationary, and property is defined and secured.

The sciences arise in a cultivated society, where individuals enjoy that leisure which invites to study and speculation. The priests, maintained in that condition by the monarch, were the earliest cultivators of science. The Egyptian science was confined to the priests. Astronomy, which is among the earliest of the sciences, owed its origin probably to superstition. Medicine was among the early sciences. All rude nations have a pharmacy of their own, equal in general to their wants. Luxury, creating new and more complex diseases, requires a profounder knowledge of medicine, and of the animal economy.

III.

OF THE EGYPTIANS.

1. A great portion of the knowledge and attainments of the ancient nations, and by consequence of those of the moderns, is to be traced to Egypt. The Egyptians instructed the Greeks; they performed the same office to the Romans; and the two latter have transmitted much of that knowledge to the world of which we are in possession at this day.*

2. The antiquity of this empire, though we give no credit to the chronicles of Manetho,† or those of the Chaldeans, Chinese, or Indians, must be allowed to be very great.—The Mosaic writings represent Egypt, about 430 years after the flood, as a flourishing and well-regulated kingdom.—The nature of the country itself affords a presumption of the great antiquity of the empire, and its early civilization.—From the fertilizing effects of the waters of the Nile, it is probable that agriculture would be more early practised there, than in regions less favoured by nature.—The periodical inundations of the Nile are owing to the vapours of the Mediterranean condensed on the mountains of Ethiopia.

3. The government of Egypt was an hereditary monarchy.—The powers of the monarch were limited by constitutional laws; yet in many respects his authority was extremely despotical.—The functions of the sovereign were partly civil and partly religious.—The king had the chief regulation of all that regarded the worship of the gods;‡ and the

* For the supposed origin of Egyptian science, see Part II. Sect. 50.

† An Egyptian priest, author of the history of the Dynasties of Egypt.

‡ The worship of the Sun, Moon, and Stars, was the first step of defection from the homage that was due to Jehovah, the Creator of the host of heaven—and the second, when kings commanded themselves or other objects to be worshipped as deities. The earliest instance of deified heroes or kings, according to Josephus, took place amongst the Syrians of Damascus, who deified their king Benhadad. Adad or Hadad was the name of the Sun with them, and Benhadad signified the Son of the Sun.

priests, considered as his deputies, filled all the offices of state. They were both the legislators and the civil judges; they imposed and levied the taxes, and regulated weights and measures.—The great national tribunal was composed of thirty judges, chosen from the priests in the three principal provinces or departments of the empire, Thebes, Heliopilis, and Memphis.

These judges had revenues assigned them, that, being freed from domestic cares, they might devote their whole time to the execution of the laws. Thus, maintained by the liberality of the sovereign, who exacted an oath from them not to yield obedience even to himself, if he passed an unjust law, they administered gratuitously to the people that justice to which they have a natural right, and, as parties were their own advocates, the expense was no burden upon the people. To guard against surprise, the judges also required that every case should be laid before them in writing, lest they might be misled by that extraordinary gift of oratory which often dazzles the mind and moves the passions.—The penal laws of Egypt were uncommonly severe.—Wilful murder and perjury were punished with death, and the false accuser was condemned to suffer the same punishment which the person accused would have suffered had the charge been proved.—Female chastity was most rigidly protected; and he who refused to render assistance to another when attacked, was equally liable to punishment with the individual who had done the injury.—Funeral rites were not conferred but after a scrutiny into the life of the deceased, and by a judicial decree approving of his character. The characters even of the sovereigns were subjected to this inquiry.

There was an extraordinary regulation in Egypt to discourage the borrowing of money. The borrower was required to give in pledge the body of his father, which it was the custom to have embalmed in a remarkable manner, and he was not only deprived

of funeral rites if he failed to redeem it, but whilst he lived he was not permitted to bury any person descended from him.

Population was encouraged by many salutary laws. The exposing of infants was restrained by the severest penalties, and every man was bound to maintain and educate not only the children born to him in the state of marriage, but also those that he had by his slaves or concubines: whatever was the condition of the woman, whether she was free or a slave, her children were deemed free and legitimate. Homicide was punished with death even when committed on a slave.

3. The manners of the Egyptians were very early formed. They had a singular attachment to ancient usages; a dislike to innovation; a jealousy and abhorrence of strangers.

4. They preceded most of the ancient nations in the knowledge of the useful arts and in the cultivation of the sciences. They understood very early the use of metals, both in the fabrication of serviceable utensils, in ornamental decorations, and in the coining of money, as a medium of commerce.—Architecture was early brought to great perfection.—Their buildings, the pyramids, obelisks, &c., have, from the extreme mildness of the climate, suffered little injury from time. Some of the obelisks, which are supposed to be more ancient than the pyramids, and consequently above 3000 years old, are entire at this day: one in particular may be seen at Rome, which was transported thither by Augustus, and which Pliny says was supposed to be older than the time of Sesostris. These immense masses, consisting of one entire block of granite, were hewn in the quarries of Upper Egypt, where some are now to be seen half finished. During the inundation of the Nile, and by means of canals, they were conveyed on rafts to the places where they were to be erected.—Pliny minutely describes the contrivance by means of which they were transported.—The whole country abounds with the re-

mains of ancient magnificence.—Thebes, in Upper Egypt, was one of the most splendid cities in the universe.

The pyramids are supposed to have been erected about 900 years A. C.—They were probably the sepulchral monuments of the sovereigns. The Egyptians believed that death did not separate the soul from the body; and hence their extreme care to preserve the body entire, by embalming, concealing it in caves and catacombs, and guarding it by such stupendous structures.—Mr. Bruce supposes the pyramids to be rocks hewn into a pyramidal form, and encrusted, where necessary, with masonwork.

The remains of art in Egypt, though venerable for their great antiquity, are extremely deficient in beauty and elegance.—The Egyptians were ignorant of the construction of an arch.—The remains of painting and sculpture evince but a slender proficiency in those arts, and afford but a small degree of pleasure to the critical eye.

5. The Egyptians possessed considerable knowledge of geometry, mechanics, and astronomy. They had divided the zodiac into twelve signs; they were able to calculate both solar and lunar eclipses; and seem to have had an idea of the motion of the earth.

6. The morality taught by the priests was pure and refined; but it had little influence on the manners of the people.

7. So likewise the theology and secret doctrines of the priests were rational and sublime; but the worship of the people was debased by the most absurd and contemptible superstition.

8. Notwithstanding the early civilization and the great attainments of this people, their national character was extremely low and despicable among the contemporary nations of antiquity. The reason of this is, they were a people who chose to sequestrate themselves from the rest of mankind; they were not

known to other nations by their conquests; they had little connexion with them by commerce; and they had an antipathy to the persons and manners of strangers.

9. There were likewise many circumstances of their own manners which tended to degrade them in the opinion of other nations.—All professions were hereditary in Egypt, and the rank of each was scrupulously settled: the objects of the religious worship were different in different parts of the kingdom; a fertile source of division and controversy: their particular superstitions were of the most absurd and debasing nature: and the manners of the people were extremely loose and profligate.

IV.

OF THE PHŒNICIANS.

1. The Phœnicians were among the most early civilized nations of the East. We are indebted to them for the invention of writing, and for the first attempts at commercial navigation.—The fragments of Sanchoniatho, which have been preserved by Eusebius, are the most ancient monuments of writing after the books of Moses. Sanchoniatho was contemporary with Joshua, about 1440 B. C. and 500 before the cities of Attica were united by Theseus.

2. The Phœnicians (the Canaanites of Scripture) were a commercial people in the days of Abraham. Their situation, occupying a narrow country on the eastern coast of the Mediterranean, and confined on all quarters towards the land by the surrounding tribes, naturally induced them to turn their attention to navigation.—In the time of the Hebrew judges, they had begun to colonize.—Their first settlements were Cyprus and Rhodes; thence they passed into Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain, and formed establishments likewise on the western coast of Africa.

—The Sidonians carried on an extensive commerce at the time of the Trojan war.

3. Tyre was colonized from Sidon, and these two cities were amongst the most illustrious of antiquity. The former does not appear to have existed in the time of Homer, for he makes frequent mention of Sidon, but says nothing of Tyre. The Tyrians were extremely industrious, and discovered many of the useful arts. To them we owe the invention of the making of glass, and the Tyrian purple is celebrated by all ancient authors. Tyre appears to have rapidly risen to great splendour, and to have surpassed its parent-state in opulence and extensive commerce. But its greatness was of no long duration. It was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, about 567 B. C. and again by Alexander the Great, (332 B. C.) after a siege of seven months, which was considered the greatest exploit of that mighty conqueror.

V.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

1. GREECE being indebted for the first rudiments of civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians, its history is properly introduced by an account of those more ancient nations.

2. The early antiquities of this country are disguised by fable; but from the time when it becomes important, it has been treated of by eminent writers.

3. The ancient inhabitants of Greece, the Pelasgi, Hiantes, Leleges, were extremely barbarous; but a dawning of civilization arose under the Titans, a Phœnician or Egyptian colony, who settled in the country about the time of Moses.—The Titans gave the Greeks the first ideas of religion, and introduced the worship of their own gods, Saturn, Jupiter, Ceres, &c., who were nothing more than deified

heroes; and, by a progress of ideas not unnatural, this rude people confounded in after times their gods with the Titans who introduced them, and hence sprung the numberless fables, respecting their gods and demi-gods.

4. Inachus, the last of the Titans, founded the kingdom of Argos, 1856 B. C.—And Egialeus, one of his sons, the kingdom of Sicyon.

5. In the following century happened the deluge or inundation of Oxyges, 1796 B. C.—Then followed a period of barbarism for above 200 years, during which period history is silent.

6. Cecrops, the leader of another colony from Egypt, landed in Attica, 1582 B. C. and, connecting himself with the last king (Acteus), by marrying his daughter, succeeded on his death to the sovereignty. He built twelve cities, Athens amongst others, originally called after himself Cecropia, and was eminent both as a lawgiver and politician.

7. The Grecian history derives some authenticity at this period from the chronicle of Paros, preserved among the Arundelian Marbles at Oxford.—The authority of this chronicle has been questioned of late, and many arguments adduced, presumptive of its being a forgery; but on a review of the whole controversy, we judge the arguments for its authenticity to preponderate. It fixes the dates of the most remarkable events in the history of Greece, from the time of Cecrops down to the age of Alexander the Great.

8. Cecrops died childless, and was succeeded by Cranaus, in whose time happened two remarkable events recorded in the chronicle of Paros; the judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly; and the deluge of Deucalion.—The court of Areopagus, at Athens, was instituted by Cecrops. The number of its judges varied at different periods from nine to fifty-one. They were chosen from among the wisest and most respectable of the citizens, and, in the latter times, consisted

principally of such as had filled the highest dignities. They held their meetings in the open air, and determined all causes during the night.—The deluge of Deucalion, magnified and disguised by the poets, was probably only a partial inundation.

9. Amphictyon, the contemporary of Cranaus, i. the founder of the Amphictyonic council, must have possessed extensive views of policy.—This council, from a league of twelve cities, became a representative assembly of the states of Greece, and had the most admirable political effects in uniting the nation, and giving it a common interest. The states united in this general council were the Ionians, among whom were comprehended the Athenians; the Dorians; the Perhæbians; the Bœotians; Magnesians; Achæans; Pythians; Melians; Dolopians; Ænianians; Delphians; and Phocians. They met twice in the year at Thermopylæ, and afterwards at Delphi; two deputies attending from each state, and in their deliberations and resolutions all were on a footing or equality.

10. Cadmus, about 1519 B. C., introduced alphabetic writing into Greece from Phœnicia.—The alphabet then had only sixteen letters, and the ancient Greeks had no more for many centuries afterwards; and the mode of writing (termed *Boustrophedon*, from its resemblance to the furrows described in ploughing a field) was alternately from left to right, and right to left.—From this period the Greeks made rapid advances in civilization.

VI.

REFLECTIONS ON THE FIRST AND RUDEST PERIODS OF THE GRECIAN HISTORY.

1. The country of Greece presents a large, irregular peninsula, intersected by many chains of mountains, separating its different districts, and opposing natural impediments to general intercourse, and

therefore to rapid civilization.—The extreme barbarism of the Pelasgi, who are said to have been cannibals, and ignorant of the use of fire, has its parallel in modern barbarous nations.—There were many circumstances that retarded the progress of the Greeks to refinement. The introduction of a national religion was best fitted to remove these obstacles. Receiving this new system of theology from strangers, and entertaining at first very confused ideas of it, they would naturally blend its doctrines and worship with the notions of religion which they formerly possessed; and hence we observe only partial coincidences of the Grecian with the Egyptian and Phœnician mythologies.—It has been a vain and preposterous labour of modern mythological writers, to attempt to trace all the fables of antiquity, and the various systems of Pagan theology, up to one common source.—The absurdity of this is best shewn, by comparing the different and most contradictory solutions of the same fable given by different mythologists; as, for example, by Lord Bacon and the abbé Banier. Some authors, with much indiscretion, have attempted to deduce all the Pagan mythologies from the Holy Scriptures. Such researches are not only unprofitable, but positively mischievous.

2. Superstition, in the early periods, was a predominant characteristic of the Greeks.—To this age, and to this character of the people, we refer the origin of the Grecian oracles, and the institution of the public games in honour of the gods.

The desire of penetrating into futurity, and the superstition common to rude nations, gave rise to the oracles of Delphi, Dodona, &c.

The resort of strangers to these oracles on particular occasions, led to the celebration of a festival, and to public games.

The four solemn games of the Greeks, particularly termed *ἱεροὶ*, were the Olympic, the Pythian, the Nemean, and the Isthmian. The precise eras when these games were first instituted are extremely un-

certain, as well as the persons to whom they owed their origin. They consisted principally in contests of skill in all the athletic exercises, and the prizes were chiefly honorary marks of distinction.—The Olympic games were celebrated at Olympia, in the territory of Elis, every fiftieth month, or the second month after the completion of four years.—Archbishop Potter in his *Archælogia Græca* fully details their particular nature.—These games had excellent political effects, in promoting national union, in diffusing the love of glory, and training the youth to martial exercises. They cherished at once a heroical and a superstitious spirit, which led to the formation of extraordinary and hazardous enterprises. They also promoted the diffusion of knowledge, arts, sciences, and literature, by the trials of skill, which took place on these occasions, in poetry, history, and music.

VII.

EARLY PERIOD OF THE GRECIAN HISTORY.—THE ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION.—WARS OF THEBES AND OF TROY.

1. The history of Greece, for a period of 300 years preceding the Trojan war, is intermixed with fables; but contains, at the same time, many facts entitled to credit, as authentic. Erectheus, or Ericthonius, either a Greek who had visited Egypt, or the leader of a new Egyptian colony, cultivated the plains of Eleusis, and instituted, in honour of Ceres, the Eleusinian mysteries,* in imitation of the Egyptian games of Isis. These mysteries were of a religious and moral nature, conveying the doctrines of the unity of God, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. Cicero

* For a full account of these mysteries, see Cumberland's Observer, No. 115.

speaks of them with high encomium. But the ceremonies connected with them were childish and ridiculous. They were celebrated in the autumn of every fifth year at Eleusis.

2. Theseus laid the foundation of the grandeur of Attica, by uniting its twelve detached states or cities, which before were governed by their own magistrates and laws. He gave them a common constitution (1257 B.C.), abolished the separate magistracies, and in conjunction with the principal men of each state, framed a new code of laws.

3. The first great enterprise of the Greeks was the Argonautic expedition to Colchis under the command of Jason, 1263 B.C. (Usher), and 937 B.C. (Sir Isaac Newton). This is supposed to have been both a military and a mercantile adventure, and was singularly bold for the times in which it was undertaken. The object was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to secure some establishments upon its Asiatic coasts. For these purposes a fleet and troops were necessary. The armament consisted of many ships, of which Argo, the largest, was equal to about the size of a modern vessel of 200 tons burden. The astronomer Chiron directed the plan of the voyage, and formed, for the use of the mariners, a scheme of the constellations, fixing with accuracy the solstitial and equinoctial points. Sir Isaac Newton has founded his emendation of the ancient chronology, on a calculation of the regular precession of the equinoxes from this period to the present, as well as on an estimate of the medium length of human generations.

4. The state of the military art at this time in Greece may be estimated from an account of the sieges of Thebes and of Troy.

In these enterprises the arts of attack and defence were very rude and imperfect. The siege was entirely of the nature of blockade, and therefore necessarily of long duration.—A dispute for the divided sovereignty of Thebes between the brothers Eteocles

and Polynices, the sons of Œdipus, gave rise to the war, which, after a long contest, was terminated by single combat, in which both were killed.

5. The sons of the commanders slain in this war renewed the quarrel of their fathers, and occasioned what was called the war of the *Epigonoi*, that is, the descendants or sons of the former, in which the city of Thebes was entirely destroyed by the Argives. Upon this subject Homer is said to have written a poem, now lost, equal to the Iliad and Odyssey.

6. The detail of the war of Troy rests chiefly on the authority of Homer, and ought not, in spite of modern scepticism, to be refused, in its principal facts, the credit of a true history.—After a blockade of ten years, Troy was taken, either by storm or surprise, 1184 B.C. (Usher), and 904 B.C. (Sir I. Newton), and, being set on fire in the night, was burnt to the ground: not a vestige of its ruins existing at the present day. The empire fell from that moment. The Greeks, about eighty years after, settled a colony near the spot; and the rest of the kingdom was occupied by the Lydians.

7. Military expeditions at this time were carried on only in the spring and summer.—In a tedious siege, the winter was a season of armistice.—The science of military tactics was then utterly unknown, every battle being a multitude of single combats.—The soldier had no pay but his share of the booty, divided by the chiefs.—The weapons of war were the sword, the bow, the javelin, the club, the hatchet, and the sling. A helmet of brass, an enormous shield, made of thin metal and covered with the hide of an animal, a cuirass, and buskins, were the weapons of defence.

VIII.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GREEK COLONIES.

1. ABOUT eighty years after the taking of Troy began the war of the Heraclidæ. Hercules, the son

of Amphitryon, sovereign of Mycenæ, was banished from his country with all his family, while the crown was possessed by an usurper. His descendants, Cresphontes and Aristodemus, after the period of a century, returned to Peloponnesus, and, subduing all their enemies, took possession of the states of Mycenæ, Argos, and Lacedæmon. Cresphontes seized Mycenæ and Argos, and the two sons of Aristodemus, Eurysthenes and Procles, divided Lacedæmon.

2. A long period of civil war and bloodshed succeeded, and Greece, divided among a number of petty tyrants, who maintained a constant war with their neighbours, suffered equally the miseries of oppression and anarchy, and was again thrown back into barbarism. This state of society at last became insupportable, and the very name of king became odious.

The Heraclidæ, in their war against the Athenians, were assured of success by the oracle, provided they did not kill Codrus, then king of Athens. But he having become acquainted with this condition, shewed a singular example of patriotism, in devoting himself to death for his country. Medon and Nileus, the sons of Codrus, disputed the succession to the crown, but the Athenians, weary of monarchy, determined to make the experiment of a popular constitution, and they elected Medon chief magistrate, with the title of Archon. This is the commencement of the Athenian republic, about 1068 B.C.

3. It was at this time that the Greeks began to colonize. The oppression which they suffered at home forced many of them to abandon their country, and seek refuge in other lands.—A large body of Æolians, from Peloponnesus, founded twelve cities on the opposite coast of Lesser Asia, of which Smyrna was the most considerable. Nileus, disappointed at Athens, also carried over into Asia a large body of the disaffected Athenians, along with some Ionian exiles. He built Ephesus, Colophon,

Clazomene, and other towns; giving to their new settlements the name of Ionia, in compliment to his associates. The Dorians sent off colonies to Italy and Sicily, founding, in the former, Tarentum and Locri, and in the latter, Syracuse and Agrigentum. These again at a later period colonized the islands of Crete, Rhodes, Cos, and also Halicarnassus and Cnidus in Asia. The mother-country considered its colonies as entitled to great favour and assistance, but still as emancipated children.—These speedily attained to eminence and splendour, rivalling and surpassing their parent states: and the example of their prosperity, which was attributed to the freedom of their governments, incited the states of Greece, oppressed by a number of petty despots, to put an end to the regal government, and try the experiment of a popular constitution. Athens and Thebes gave the first examples, which were soon followed by all the rest.

4. These infant republics demanded new laws; and it was necessary that some enlightened citizens should arise, who had discernment to perceive what system of legislation was most adapted to the character of his native state; who had abilities to compile such a system, and sufficient authority with his countrymen to recommend and enforce it. Such men were the Spartan Lycurgus and the Athenian Solon.

IX.

THE REPUBLIC OF SPARTA.

1. The origin of this political system has given rise to much ingenious disquisition among the moderns, and affords a remarkable instance of the passion for systematizing. It is a prevailing propensity with modern philosophers to reduce every thing to general principles. Man, say they, is always the same animal, and, when placed in similar situations, will always exhibit a similar appearance.

His manners, his improvements, the government and laws under which he lives, arise necessarily from the situation in which we find him; and all is the result of a few general laws of nature which operate universally on the human species. But in the ardour of this passion for generalizing, these philosophers often forget, that it is the knowledge of facts which can alone lead to the discovery of general laws: a knowledge not limited to the history of a single age or nation, but extended to that of the whole species in every age and climate. Antecedently to such knowledge, all historical system is mere romance.

2. Of this nature is a late theory of the constitution of Sparta first started by Mr. Brown in his Essay on Civil Liberty; and from him adopted by later writers. It thus accounts for the origin of the Spartan constitution.* 'The army of the Heraclidæ, when they came to recover the dominion of their ancestors, was composed of Dorians from Thessaly, the most barbarous of all the Greek tribes. The Achæans, the ancient inhabitants of Laconia, were compelled to seek new habitations, while the barbarians of Thessaly took possession of their country. Of all the nations which are the subject of historical record, this people bore the nearest resemblance to the rude Americans. An American tribe where a chief presides, where the council of the aged deliberate, and the assembly of the people give their voice, is on the eve of such a political establishment as the Spartan constitution.' The Dorians or Thessalians settled in Lacedæmon, manifested, it is said, the same manners with all other nations in a barbarous state. Lycurgus did no more than arrest them in that state, by forming their usages into laws. He checked them at once in the first stage of their improvement. 'He put forth a bold hand to that spring which is in society, and stopped its motion.'

* Logan's Philosophy of History, &c.

3. This theory, however ingenious, is confuted by facts. All ancient authors agree, that Lycurgus operated a total change on the Spartan manners, and on the constitution of his country; while the moderns have discovered that he made no change on either. The most striking features of the manners and constitution of Sparta have not the smallest resemblance to those of any rude nations with which we are acquainted. The communion of slaves and of many other species of property, the right of the state in the children of all the citizens, their common education, the public tables, the equal division of lands, the oath of government between the kings and people, have no parallel in the history of any barbarous nations.

4. The real history of Sparta and its constitution is therefore not to be found in modern theory, but in the writings of the Greek historians, and these are our sole authorities worthy of credit.

After the return of the Heraclidæ, Sparta was divided between the two sons of Aristodemus, Eurysthenes and Procles, who jointly reigned; and this double monarchy, transmitted to the descendants of each, continued in the separate branches for near 900 years. A radical principle of disunion, and consequent anarchy, made the want of constitutional laws be severely felt. Lycurgus, brother of Polydectes, one of the kings of Sparta, a man distinguished alike by his abilities and virtues, was invested, by the concurring voice of the sovereigns and people, with the important duty of reforming and new-modelling the constitution of his country, 884 A.C.

5. Lycurgus instituted a senate, elective, of twenty-eight members; whose office was to preserve a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. Nothing could come before the assembly of the people which had not received the previous consent of the senate; and, on the other hand, no judgment of the senate was effectual with-

out the sanction of the people. The kings presided in the senate, and had a double suffrage: they were the generals of the republic: but in other respects their power was extremely limited. They could plan no enterprise without the consent of a council of the citizens, whose duty it was to watch over their measures.

6. Lycurgus bent his attention most particularly to the regulation of manners; and one great principle pervaded his whole system—Luxury is the bane of society.

He divided the territory of the republic into 39,000 equal portions, among the whole of its free citizens.

He substituted iron money for gold and silver, prohibited the practice of commerce, abolished all useless arts, and allowed even those necessary to life to be practised only by the slaves.

The whole citizens made their principal repast at the public tables. The meals were coarse and parsimonious; the conversation was fitted to improve the youth in virtue, and cultivate the patriotic spirit.

The Spartan education rejected all embellishments of the understanding. It nourished only the severer virtues. It taught the duties of religion, obedience to the laws, respect for parents, reverence for old age, inflexible honour, undaunted courage, contempt of danger and of death:—above all, the love of glory and of their country.

7. But the general excellence of the institutions of Lycurgus was impaired by many blemishes. The manners of the Lacedæmonian women were shamefully loose, and they were the reproach of all Greece for their immodesty. They frequented t e baths, and fought naked in the Palæstra promiscuously with the men. Theft was a part of Spartan education. Paternal or maternal tenderness seemed perfectly unknown among this ferocious people, and the youth were taught to subdue the feelings of

humanity; the slaves, or Helots, a neighbouring people of Peloponnesus, whom they had reduced to servitude, were treated with the most barbarous rigour, and often massacred for sport. The institutions of Lycurgus had no other end than to form a nation of soldiers.

8. A material change in the constitution of Sparta was made about 130 years after the death of Lycurgus, by the creation of a new magistracy under the name of the *Ephori*; they were five in number, and elected annually by the people. They enjoyed a similar but higher power than that of the tribunes of the people of Rome. They were instituted at first by the kings to control the influence of the senate, but they soon acquired a power paramount to that of the kings and senate. They even assumed the functions of deposing and putting the kings to death. The kings, on the other hand, plotted against the Ephori, and often caused them to be murdered. These contentions silently undermined the political fabric, and ultimately caused its destruction.

X.

THE REPUBLIC OF ATHENS.

1. On the abolition of the regal office at Athens, the change of the constitution was more nominal than real. The archonship was, during 331 years, a perpetual and hereditary magistracy, in the family of Codrus, and in this form became equally grievous as that which had preceded it. In 754 A.C. this office became decennial. Even this limited term was found opposed to the growing spirit of democracy, and in 648 the archons were annually elected, and were nine in number, with equal authority. Under all these changes, the state was convulsed, and the condition of the people miserable.

2. Draco, elevated to the archonship 624 A.C. projected a reform in the constitution of his country,

and thought to repress disorders by the extreme severity of penal laws. But his talents were unequal to the task he had undertaken.

3. Solon, an illustrious Athenian, of the race of Codrus, attained the dignity of archon 594 A.C., and was intrusted with the care of framing for his country a new form of government, and a new system of laws. He possessed extensive knowledge, but wanted that intrepidity of mind which is necessary to the character of a great statesman. His disposition was mild and temporising; and, without attempting to reform the manners of his countrymen, he accommodated his system to their prevailing habits and passions.

4. The people claimed the sovereign power, and they received it: the rich demanded offices and dignities: the system of Solon accommodated them to the utmost of their wishes. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the measure of their wealth. To the three first, the richer citizens, belonged all the offices and dignities of the commonwealth. The fourth, the poorer class, more numerous than all the other three, had an equal right of suffrage with them in the public assembly, where all laws were framed, and measures of state decreed. Consequently the weight of the latter decided every question, and gave them the chief power in the state.

5. To regulate in some degree the proceedings of those assemblies, and balance the weight of the popular interest, Solon instituted a senate of 400 members (afterwards enlarged to 500 and 600), with whom it was necessary that every measure should originate before it became the subject of discussion in the assembly of the people.

6. To the court of Areopagus he committed the guardianship of the laws, and the power of enforcing them, with the supreme administration of justice. To this tribunal belonged likewise the custody of the treasures of the state, the care of religion, and a

tutorial power over all the youth of the republic. The number of its judges was various at different periods, and the most immaculate purity of character was essential to that high office. They were chosen from among the most respectable of the citizens, and generally such as had discharged the duties of archon.

7. The authority of the senate and Areopagus imposed some check on the popular assemblies; but as these possessed the ultimate right of decision, it was always in the power of ambitious demagogues to sway them to the worst of purposes, and to render useless the regulations of the wisest legislator that ever lived. Continual factions divided the people, and corruption pervaded every department of the state. The public measures, the result of the interested schemes of individuals, were often equally absurd as they were profligate. Athens often saw her best patriots, the wisest and most virtuous of her citizens, shamefully sacrificed to the most depraved and most abandoned.

8. The particular laws of the Athenian state were more deserving of encomium than its form of government. The laws relating to debtors were mild and equitable; imprisonment for debt was prohibited, but every debtor was deprived of his vote in the public assembly until the debt was paid. This disfranchisement extended also to the heir. The laws regulating the treatment of slaves were equally mild and humane. The slave might purchase his freedom, he might marry a free woman, and their children had all the rights of citizens.—But the vassalage of women, or their absolute subjection to the control of their nearest relations, approached too near to a state of servitude. The proposer of a law, found on experience impolitic, was liable to punishment; an enactment apparently rigorous, but probably necessary in a popular government.

9. One most iniquitous and absurd peculiarity of the Athenian, and some other governments of

Greece, was the practice of the *Ostracism*, a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down the name of the person in his opinion most obnoxious to censure; and he who was thus marked out by the greatest number of voices, though unimpeached of any crime, was banished for ten years from his country. This barbarous and disgraceful institution, ever capable of the grossest abuse, and generally subservient to the worst of purposes, has stained the character of Athens with many flagrant instances of public ingratitude.

10. The manners of the Athenians formed the most striking contrast to those of the Lacedæmonians. The arts were, at Athens, in the highest esteem; the Lacedæmonians despised the arts, and all who cultivated them. At Athens, peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyment of life the aim of all its subjects; Sparta was entirely a military establishment: her subjects, when unengaged in war, were totally unoccupied. Luxury was the character of the Athenian, as frugality of the Spartan. They were equally jealous of their liberty, because liberty was equally necessary to each, for the enjoyment of his favourite scheme of life; and in the best times of both republics they were equally brave in war. The courage of the Spartan sprung from a fostered hardihood and constitutional ferocity, that of the Athenian from the principle of honour.

11. The Spartan government had acquired solidity, while all the rest of Greece was yet unsettled and torn by domestic dissensions.—While the power of Sparta was thus high among the states of the Peloponnesus, Athens, a prey to faction and civil disorder, surrendered her liberties to Pisistratus (550 A.C.), a relation of Solon, a man of great talents, and highly popular. Pisistratus, after various turns of fortune, established himself firmly in the sovereignty, exercised a splendid and munificent dominion, completely gained the affections of the people, and

transmitted a peaceable crown to his sons Hippias and Hipparchus.

12. Hermodias and Aristogiton undertook to restore the democracy; and succeeded in the attempt. Hipparchus was put to death; and Hippias, dethroned, solicited a foreign aid to replace him in the sovereignty. Darius, the son of Hystaspes, meditated at this time the conquest of Greece. Hippias took advantage of the views of an enemy against his native country, and Greece was now involved in a war with Persia.

XI.

OF THE STATE OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE, AND ITS HISTORY DOWN TO THE WAR WITH GREECE.

1. The first empire of the Assyrians ended under Sardanapalus, and three monarchies arose from its ruins, Nineveh, Babylon, and the kingdom of the Medes.

2. The history of Babylon and of Nineveh is very imperfectly known. The Medes, hitherto independent tribes, were united under a monarchy by Dejoces, a haughty and despotic prince. He left the crown to his son Phraortes, who conquered Persia, and subdued a great part of Asia; but was himself vanquished by Nabuchodonoser I. king of Assyria, made prisoner, and put to death. Cyaxares, the son and successor of Phraortes, in alliance with Nabopolassar, king of Babylon, besieged Nineveh, destroyed that splendid city, and divided the kingdom between them. Nabuchodonoser II., the son of Nabopolassar, led the Jews into captivity, took Jerusalem and Tyre, and subdued Egypt.

3. The history of Cyrus is involved in great uncertainty; nor is it possible to reconcile or apply to one man the different accounts given of him by Herodotus, Ctesias, aud Xenophon. Succeeding his father Cambyses in the throne of Persia, and his

uncle Cyaxares in the sovereignty of the Medes, he united these empires, vanquished the Babylonians and Lydians, subjected the greatest part of the Lesser Asia, and made himself master of Syria and Arabia.

4. He was succeeded by his son Cambyses, distinguished only as a tyrant and a madman.

5. After the death of Cambyses, Darius, the son of Hystaspes, was elected sovereign of Persia, a prince of great enterprise and ambition. Unfortunate in a rash expedition against the Scythians, he projected and achieved the conquest of India, which was made the twentieth province of the Persian empire. Inflated with success, he now meditated an invasion of Greece, and cordially entered into the views of Hippias, who sought by his means to regain the sovereignty of Athens.

6. *Government, Manners, Laws, &c. of the Ancient Persians.*—The government of Persia was an absolute monarchy; the will of the sovereign being subject to no control, and his person revered as sacred; yet the education bestowed by those monarchs on their children, was calculated to inspire every valuable quality of a sovereign.

The ancient Persians in general bestowed the utmost attention on the education of youth. Children until the age of five, were exclusively under the tuition of their mothers, but after that age they were committed to the care of the Magi, the priests or ministers of the national religion, for the improvement of their mind and morals. They were trained at the same time to every manly exercise. The sacred books of the *Zendavesta* promised to every worthy parent, the imputed merit and reward of all the good actions of his children.

7. Luxurious as they were in after times, the early Persians were distinguished for their temperance, bravery, and virtuous simplicity of manners. They were all trained to the use of arms; and in time of war, every male capable of bearing arms was obliged.

under pain of death, to attend the monarch in the field. Hence those immense undisciplined armies which almost exceed belief. In fight, the ancient Persians displayed great personal courage. The custom of the women following their armies to the field, erroneously attributed to effeminacy, was a remnant of barbarous manners.

8. The kingdom of Persia was divided into several provinces, each under a governor or satrap, who received his instructions immediately from the prince, and was obliged at stated times to give an account of his administration. To facilitate this intercourse between the provinces and the capital, regular couriers, or posts, were established in the time of Cyrus; which is the first time we hear of them being mentioned, and they were not introduced into the western parts of the world until a late period. The prince, at stated times, visited his provinces either in person, or by his commissioners, correcting all abuses, easing the burdens of the oppressed, and encouraging agriculture and the practice of the useful arts. The laws of Persia were mild and equitable, and the utmost purity was observed in the administration of justice.

9. The religion of the ancient Persians is of great antiquity. It is conjectured that there were two Zoroasters; the first the founder of this ancient religion, and of whom are recorded miracles and prophecies; the second a reformer of that religion, contemporary with Darius the son of Hystaspes. The *Zendavesta*, or sacred book, compiled by the former, was improved and purified by the latter. It has been translated into French by M. Anquetil de Perron, and appears to contain, amidst a mass of absurdity, some sublime truths, and excellent precepts of morality. The theology of the *Zendavesta* is founded on the doctrine of two opposite principles, a good and an evil, Ormusd and Ahriman, eternal beings, who divide between them the government of the universe, and whose warfare must endure till the

end of 12,000 years, when the good will finally prevail over the evil. A separation will ensue of the votaries of each: the just shall be admitted to the immediate enjoyment of paradise; the wicked, after a limited purification by fire, shall ultimately be allowed to partake in the blessings of eternity. Ormusd is to be adored through the medium of his greatest works, the sun, moon, and stars. The fire, the symbol of the sun, the air, the earth, the water, have their subordinate worship.

The morality of the *Zendavesta* is best known from its abridgment the *Sadder*, compiled about three centuries ago by the modern Guebres. It inculcates a chastened species of Epicurism; allowing a free indulgence of the passions, while consistent with the welfare of society. It prohibits equally intemperance and ascetic mortification. It recommends, as precepts of religion, the cultivation of the earth, the planting of fruit trees, the destruction of noxious animals, the bringing water to a barren land.

10. Such were the ancient Persians. But their national character had undergone a great change before the period of the war with Greece. At this time they were a degenerate and corrupted people. Athens had recently thrown off the yoke of the Pisistratidæ, and highly valued her new liberty. Sparta, in the ardour of patriotism, forgot all jealousy of her rival state, and cordially united in the defence of their common country. The Persians, in this contest, had no other advantage than that of numbers, an unequal match for superior heroism and military skill.

XII.

THE WAR BETWEEN GREECE AND PERSIA.

1. The ambition of Darius the son of Hystaspes, heightened by the passion of revenge, gave rise to the project of that monarch for the invasion of Greece.

The Athenians had aided the Ionians, a people of the Lesser Asia, originally a Greek colony in an attempt to throw off the yoke of Persia, and burnt and ravaged Sardis, the capital of Lydia. Darius speedily reduced the Ionians to submission, and then turned his arms against the Greeks, their allies; the exile Hippias eagerly prompting the expedition.

2. After an insolent demand of submission, which the Greeks scornfully refused, Darius began a hostile attack both by sea and land. The first Persian fleet of 300 ships was wrecked in doubling the promontory of Mount Athos; a second, of 600 sail, ravaged the Grecian islands; while an immense army, landing in Eubœa, poured down with impetuosity on Attica. The Athenians met them on the plain of Marathon, a small village near the coast, and within ten miles of Athens, and, headed by Miltiades, defeated them with prodigious slaughter, 490 A. C. The Athenian army amounted to about 10,000 men; the army of the Persians consisted of 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse. The loss of the Persians in this battle was 6,300, and among these the ignoble Hippias, whose criminal ambition would have sacrificed and enslaved his country. The Athenians in this day of glory lost only 190 men.

3. The merit of Miltiades, signally displayed in this great battle, was repaid by his country with the most shocking ingratitude. Accused of treason for an unsuccessful attack on the isle of Paros, his sentence of death was commuted into a fine of fifty talents (about £9,400. sterling); which being unable to pay, he was thrown into prison, and there died of his wounds.

4. The glory of ungrateful Athens was yet nobly sustained in the Persian war by Themistocles and Aristides. The latter, from a disinterested spirit of patriotism, and the other, from the ambitious desire of unrivalled eminence. Darius dying, was succeeded by his son Xerxes, the heir of his father's ambition, but not of his abilities. He armed, as is said

by Herodotus, about 5,000,000 of men,* for the conquest of Greece; 1,200 ships of war, and 3,000 ships of burden. Landing in Thessaly, he proceeded, by rapid marches, towards the pass of Thermopylæ, a very narrow defile on the *Sinus Maliacus* (the bay of Malia). The Athenians and Spartans, aided only by the Corinthians, Thespians, Platæans, and Æginetes, determined to withstand the invader. Leonidas, king of Sparta, was chosen to defend this important pass with 6,000 men. Xerxes, after a weak attempt to corrupt him, imperiously summoned him to lay down his arms. 'Let him come,' said Leonidas, 'and take them.' For two days the Persians in vain strove to force their way, and were repeatedly repulsed with great slaughter. At length, by the treachery of some of the Thessalians, who had sold their services to Xerxes, a secret and unguarded track was pointed out to the Persians, and through this path a numerous body of the Persian troops penetrated in the night to the opposite plain. The defence of the pass then became a fruitless attempt on the part of the Greeks, and Leonidas, foreseeing certain destruction, commanded all to retire but 300 of his countrymen. His motive was to give the Persians a just idea of the spirit of that foe whom they vainly hoped to subdue. He, with his brave Spartans, were all cut off except one man (480 B. C.), who brought the news to Sparta, where he was treated with ignominy as a cowardly fugitive. A monument, erected on the spot, bore this noble inscription, written by the poet Simonides: 'O stranger, tell it at Lacedæmon, that we died here in obedience to her laws.'

5. The Persians pôured down upon Attica. The inhabitants of Athens, after conveying their aged and infirm, together with the women and children, to the islands of Salamis and Ægina for security, betook themselves to their fleet, abandoning the city, which

* This number must be very much overrated, when we take into account the number of ships by which this force was to be transported —it must only serve to indicate a prodigious number.

the Persians pillaged and burnt. The fleet of the Greeks, consisting of 380 sail, was attacked in the straits of Salamis, by that of the Persians, amounting to 1,200 ships. Xerxes himself beheld from an eminence on the coast the total discomfiture of his squadron. He then fled with precipitation across the Hellespont. The following year a second overthrow awaited his army by land: for Mardonius, at the head of 300,000 Persians, was totally defeated and himself killed at Platæa, by the combined army of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, under the command of Pausanias, (479 B. C.) The slaughter was incredible, as, out of an army of 300,000 men, only 40,000 are said to have returned to Asia. To complete their triumph, on the same day the Greeks engaged and destroyed the remains of the Persian fleet at the promontory of Mycale, in Ionia. From that day the ambitious schemes of Xerxes were at an end: and his inglorious life was soon after terminated by assassination. He was succeeded in the throne of Persia by his son Artaxerxes Longimanus, 464 B. C.

6. At this time the national character of the Greeks was at its highest elevation. The common danger had annihilated all partial jealousies between the states, and given them union as a nation. At the Olympic games, all the people of Greece rose up to salute Themistocles. But with the cessation of danger those jealousies recommenced. Sparta meanly opposed the rebuilding of deserted Athens. —Athens, rising again into splendour, saw with pleasure the depopulation of Sparta by an earthquake, which destroyed about 20,000 of her citizens, and hesitated to give her aid in that juncture of calamity against a rebellion of her slaves.

7. Cimon, the son of Miltiades, after expelling the Persians from Thrace, attacked and destroyed their fleet on the coast of Pamphylia, and, landing his troops, gained a signal victory over their army the same day.—Supplanted in the public favour by the

arts of his rival Pericles, a young man of a noble family and of splendid talents, he suffered a temporary exile of five years; to return only with higher popularity, and to signalize himself still more in the service of his ungrateful country. He sailed at the head of an armament of 200 ships, and attacked and totally destroyed the Persian fleet of 300 sail in the vicinity of Cyprus; and, landing afterwards in Cilicia, completed his triumph, by defeating 300,000 Persians under Megabyzes, 460 B. C. Cimon now undertook and completed the reduction of Cyprus, and added that island to the dominion of Athens; but this great man died in the moment of victory, wasted by disease and fatigue. The naval and military power of Persia was completely broken by these repeated defeats; and Artaxerxes now had the prudence to sue for peace, which was granted by the Greeks on terms most honourable to the nation. They stipulated for the freedom of all the Grecian cities of Asia, and that the fleets of Persia should not approach their coasts from the Euxine to the extreme boundary of Pamphylia. The last fifty years were the period of the highest glory of the Greeks; and they owed their prosperity entirely to their union. The peace with Persia dissolving that connexion, brought back the jealousies between the predominant states, the intestine disorders of each, and the national weakness.

8. The martial and the patriotic spirit began visibly to decline in Athens. An acquaintance with Asia, and an importation of her wealth, introduced a relish for Asiatic manners and luxuries. With the Athenians, however, this luxurious spirit was under the guidance of taste and genius. It led to the cultivation of the finer arts; and the age of Pericles, though the national glory was in its wane, is the era of the highest internal splendour and magnificence of Greece.

XIII.

AGE OF PERICLES.

1. Republics, equally with monarchies, are generally regulated by a single will: only, in the former, there is a more frequent change of masters.—The death of Cimon left Pericles for some time without a rival, and he ruled Athens with little less than arbitrary sway: and Athens pretended at this time to the command of Greece. She held the allied states in the most absolute subjection, and lavished their subsidies, bestowed for the national defence, in magnificent buildings, games and festivals, for her own citizens. The tributary states loudly complained, but durst not call this domineering republic to account; and the war of Peloponnesus, dividing the nation into two great parties, bound the lesser cities to the strictest subordination on the predominant powers.

2. The state of Corinth had been included in the last treaty between Athens and Sparta. The Corinthians had for some time been at war with the people of Corcyra, an ancient colony of their own, when both parties solicited the aid of Athens, who, on the persuasion of Pericles, took part with the latter; a measure which the Corinthians with great justice complained of, not only as an infraction of the treaty with Sparta, but as a breach of a general rule of the national policy, that a foreign power should never interfere in the disputes between a colony and its parent state. War was proclaimed on this ground between Athens and Lacedæmon, each supported by its respective allies. The detail of the war, which continued for twenty-eight years, with various and alternate success, is to be found in Thucydides, one of the best historians as well as the greatest generals of antiquity. He only lived to complete the history of the first twenty-one years of

this war, but the transactions of the remaining period are to be found detailed by Xenophon in his Grecian history. Pericles died before its termination; a splendid ornament of his country, but reproached as a corrupter of her manners, by fostering the spirit of luxury. Alcibiades ran a similar career, with equal talents, equal ambition, and still less purity of moral principle. In the interval of a truce with Sparta, he inconsiderately projected the conquest of Sicily; and, failing in the attempt, was, on his return to Athens, condemned to death for treason. He hesitated not to wreak his vengeance against his country, by selling his services, first to Sparta, and afterwards to Persia. Finally, he purchased his peace with his country, by betraying the power which protected him, and returned to Athens the idol of a populace as versatile as worthless.

3. A fatal defeat of the Athenian fleet at Ægos Potamos, by Lysander, reduced Athens to the last extremity; of 300 ships which sailed from the Piræus only eight returned to the coast of Attica. The Lacedæmonians blockaded the city by land and sea, and reduced the Athenians to the last extremity. After sustaining a blockade of six months the war was ended by the absolute submission of the Athenians, who agreed to demolish the fortifications of the harbour of Piræus; to limit their fleet to twelve ships, and undertake for the future no military enterprise, but under the command of the Lacedæmonians, 405 B.C. Such was the issue of the famous Peloponnesian war after a continuance of twenty-seven years, and with it ceased the dominion of Athens.

4. It is to the same Lysander, who terminated this destructive war so gloriously for Lacedæmon, that history ascribes the first great breach of the constitution of his country, by procuring the abrogation of that ancient law which prohibited the introduction of gold into that republic. It was not, however, allowed a free circulation, but was de-

posited in the public treasury, to be employed solely for the uses of the state. It was declared a capital offence if any should be found in the possession of a private citizen Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government in that state, and substituted in its place an oligarchy of thirty governors (who were termed *tyrants* by the Greek historians), whose power was absolute. He likewise placed a Spartan garrison in the citadel. It is computed by Xenophon, with some exaggeration, that a greater number of Athenian citizens lost their lives by these tyrants, in the short space of eight months, than had fallen during the whole of the Peloponnesian war. The people were awed into silence, and the most eminent of the citizens left their country in despair; but a band of patriots, headed by Thrasybulus, attacked, vanquished, and expelled the usurpers, and once more re-established the democracy.

5. One event which happened at this time reflected more disgrace on the Athenian name than their national humiliation: this was the persecution and death of the illustrious Socrates, a philosopher who was himself the patron of every virtue which he taught. He had excited the jealousy of the sophists, whose futile logic he derided and exposed: they represented him as an enemy to the religion of his country, because, without regard to the popular superstitions, he led the mind to the knowledge of a Supreme Being, the Creator and Ruler of the Universe, and the belief of a future state of retribution. His defence he made himself with the manly fortitude of conscious innocence;* but in vain: his judges were his personal enemies; and he was condemned to die by poison, 397 B.C. (See Section XXIII. § 5.) He drank the poisoned cup without the smallest emotion; and in the agony of death shewed to his friends an example of tranquillity

* Plato in his *Apologia Socratis* has given an ample account of it.

which their deep-felt grief denied them all power of imitating.*

6. On the death of Darius Nothus, his eldest son, Artaxerxes Mnemon, succeeded to the empire of Persia. His younger brother Cyrus formed the project of dethroning him; and, with the aid of 13,000 Greeks, engaged him at Cunaxa, near Babylon; but was defeated and slain; a just reward of his most culpable enterprise. The remainder of the Grecian army, to the amount of 10,000, under the command of Xenophon, made a most amazing retreat, traversing a hostile country of 1600 miles in extent, from Babylon to the banks of the Euxine. Xenophon has beautifully written the history of this expedition; but has painted the character of Cyrus in too flattering colours, and without the smallest censure of his criminal ambition.

7. The Greek cities of Asia had taken part with Cyrus. Sparta was engaged to defend her countrymen, and consequently was involved in a war with Persia. Had Athens added her strength, the Greeks might have once more defied the power of Asia; but jealousy kept the states divided, and even hostile to each other; and the gold of Artaxerxes excited a general league in Greece against Lacedæmon. Agesilaus, king of Sparta, sustained for a considerable time the honour of his country, and won some important battles in Asia; but others were lost in Greece; and a naval defeat near Cnidos utterly destroyed the Lacedæmonian fleet, and deprived them of the command of the sea. Finally, to escape total destruction, the Spartans sued for peace, and obtained it, by the sacrifice to Persia of all the Asiatic colonies, 387 B.C. Artaxerxes farther demanded Cyprus and Clazomene, and obtained for his allies the Athenians, the islands of Scyros, Lemnos, and Imbros. A disgraceful treaty;

* The narrative of this concluding scene is given by Plato in his dialogue entitled *Phædon*. It is the noblest specimen of simple, eloquent, and pathetic description which is any where to be met with.

a mortifying picture of the humiliation of the Greeks, and of the fatal effects of discord and the want of union among themselves.

XIV.

THE REPUBLIC OF THEBES.

1. While the two great republics of Greece, Athens and Sparta, were thus visibly tending to decline, the Theban republic emerged from obscurity, and rose for a time to a degree of splendour eclipsing all its contemporary states. The republic was divided by faction, one party supporting its ancient democracy, and the other aiming at the establishment of an oligarchy. The latter courted the aid of the Spartans, who embraced that occasion to take possession of the citadel. Four hundred of the exiled Thebans fled for protection to Athens. Among these was Pelopidas, who planned and accomplished the deliverance of his country. Disguising himself and twelve of his friends as peasants, he entered Thebes in the evening, and joining a patriotic party of the citizens, they surprised the heads of the usurpation amid the tumult of a feast, and put them all to death. Epaminondas, the friend of Pelopidas, shared with him in the glory of this enterprise; and attacking, with the aid of 5,000 Athenians, the Lacedæmonian garrison, drove them entirely out of the Theban territory, and Pelopidas and Epaminondas were hailed as the deliverers of their country.

2. A war necessarily ensued between Thebes and Sparta, in which the former had the aid of Athens. This, however, was but for a season. Thebes singly opposed the power of Sparta, and the league of Greece; but Epaminondas and Pelopidas were her generals. The latter, amidst a career of glory, perished in an expedition against the tyrant of

Pheræa. Epaminondas, triumphant at Leuctra and Mantinea, fell in that last engagement, and with him expired the glory of his country, 363 B.C. The ancient historians have ranked Epaminondas among the greatest heroes and most illustrious characters of antiquity. Athens and Sparta were humbled at the battle of Mantinea. Thebes was victorious; but she was undone by the death of Epaminondas. All parties were tired of the war; and Artaxerxes, more powerful among those infatuated states than in his own dominions, dictated the terms of the treaty. It was stipulated, that each power should retain what it possessed; and that the lesser states, now free from the yoke of the greater, should remain so. The Spartans alone refused their assent to this treaty, because they were unwilling to relinquish that control which they had exercised over some of their tributary cities.

3. Artaxerxes soon after died of a broken heart. Darius, his eldest son, together with fifty of his natural brothers, had conspired against their father, but their designs having been discovered, they were all put to death. Ochus, his third son, succeeded him by murdering his elder brother, and to secure his possession he murdered all that remained of his kindred. The treaty lately concluded among the states of Greece was fatal in its consequences to the glory of the nation, and it became a mass of unequal and independent parts.

XV.

PHILIP OF MACEDON.

1. GREECE was now in the most abject situation: the spirit of patriotism appeared utterly extinct, and military glory at an end. Athens seemed to have lost all ambition: the pleasures of luxury had entirely supplanted heroic virtue: poets, musicians, sculptors, and comedians, were now the only great

men of Attica. Sparta, no less changed from the simplicity of her ancient manners, and her power abridged by the new independency of the states of Peloponnesus, was in no capacity to attempt a recovery of her former greatness. In this situation, Philip of Macedon formed the ambitious project of bringing under his dominion the whole of Greece.

2. He had mounted the throne of Macedon by popular choice in violation of the natural right of the nearer heirs to the crown; and he secured his power by the success of his arms against the Illyrians, Pæonians, and Athenians, who espoused the interest of his competitors. Uniting to great military talents the most consummate artifice and address, he had his pensionaries in all the states of Greece, who directed to his advantage every public measure. The miserable policy of these states, embroiled in perpetual quarrels, co-operated with his designs. A sacrilegious attempt of the Phocians to plunder the temple of Delphos excited the *Sacred War*, in which almost all the republics took a part; and Philip's aid being courted by the Thebans and Thessalians, he began hostilities by invading Phocis, the key to the territory of Attica. Æschines the orator, bribed to his interest, attempted to quiet the alarms of the Athenians, by ascribing to Philip a design only of punishing sacrilege, and vindicating the cause of Apollo. Demosthenes, with true patriotism, exposed the artful designs of the invader, and with the most animated eloquence roused his countrymen to a vigorous effort for the preservation of the national liberties. But the event was unsuccessful. The battle of Cheronæa, fought 338 B. C., decided the fate of Greece, and subjected all her states to the dominion of the king of Macedon. But it was not his policy to treat them as a conquered people. They retained their separate and independent governments, while he controlled and directed all the national measures. Convoking a general council of the states, Philip was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces of Greece; and he

laid before them his project for the conquest of Persia, appointing each republic to furnish its proportional subsidies.

3. At this period the Persian monarchy had been divided by the revolt of many of the provinces, and Orchis had scarcely brought them into subjection, when he and all his family, except an infant son, were poisoned. He was succeeded by Darius, surnamed Codomannus, who is said to have been the grandson of Darius Nothus. Such was the state of Persia when Philip, on the eve of his great enterprise, was assassinated (336 B. C.) while engaged in celebrating a magnificent festival on the marriage of his daughter Cleopatra with the king of Epirus. The assassin was Pausanias, a noble youth and captain of his guards, who is said to have been influenced by private revenge. The Athenians, on the death of Philip, meanly expressed the most tumultuous joy, in the hope of a recovery of their liberty; but this visionary prospect was never realized. The spirit of the nation was gone; and in their subsequent revolutions they only changed their masters.

XVI.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

1. ALEXANDER, the son of Philip, succeeded at the age of twenty to the throne of Macedon, (B. C. 337.) He had been educated by Aristotle, and his extraordinary natural endowments sedulously cultivated. This prince possessed military abilities of the highest order, and had given proof from his earliest years of that singular heroism, which afterwards distinguished him. On the death of his father, the states of Greece attempted to regain their natural independence, but after being defeated in several battles, they submitted to him the command of Greece. Assembling the deputies of the nation at Corinth, he communicated to them his resolution of prosecuting the designs of

his father for the conquest of Persia, and called upon them for the contingents they had voted for that purpose.

2. With an army of 30,000 foot, and 5,000 horse, the sum of seventy talents, and provisions only for a single month, he crossed the Hellespont, and, in traversing Phrygia, visited the tomb of Achilles, (B. C. 334.) Darius Codomannus, resolved to crush at once this inconsiderate youth, met him on the banks of the Granicus with 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse. The Greeks swam the river, their king leading the van, and attacking the astonished Persians, left 20,000 dead upon the field, and put to flight their whole army. The loss of the Greeks amounted only to eighty-five horsemen and thirty infantry. Drawing from his first success a presage of continued victory, Alexander now sent home his fleet, leaving to his army the sole alternative, that they must subdue Asia or perish. Prosecuting their course for some time without resistance, the Greeks were attacked by the Persians in a narrow valley of Cilicia, near the town of Issus, (B. C. 333.) The Persian host amounted to 400,000; but their situation was such that only a small part could come into action, and they were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The loss of the Persians in this battle was 110,000; that of the Greeks (according to Q. Curtius) only 450.

3. The history of Alexander by Quintus Curtius, though a most elegant composition, is extremely suspicious on the score of authentic information. Arrian is the best authority.

4. The generosity of Alexander was displayed after the battle of Issus, in his attention to his noble prisoners, the mother, the wife, and family of Darius, a conduct which made a deep impression on the mind of that generous and ill-fated prince. To the credit of Alexander, it must be owned that humanity, however overpowered and at times extinguished in the heat of his passions, certainly formed a part of his natural character.

5. The consequence of the battle of Issus was the submission of all Syria. Damascus, where Darius had deposited his chief treasures, was betrayed and given up by its governor. The Phœnicians were pleased to see themselves thus avenged for the oppression they had suffered under the yoke of Persia.

6. Alexander had hitherto borne his good fortune with moderation: 'Felix,' says Curtius, 'si hac continentia ad ultimum vitæ perseverare potuisset; sed nondum Fortuna se animo ejus infuderat.' He directed his course towards Tyre, and desired admittance to perform a sacrifice to Hercules. The Tyrians sent him a golden crown as a token of their respect and amity, but refused his request, and shut their gates. They maintained for seven months a noble defence. The city was at length taken by storm; and the victor, incensed at the opposition he had met with, glutted his revenge by the inhuman massacre of 8,000 of the inhabitants, and the rest, to the number of 30,000, were sold as slaves (B.C. 332). The fate of Gaza, gloriously defended by Bætis, was equally deplorable to its citizens, and more disgraceful to the conqueror. Ten thousand of the former were sold into slavery, and its brave defender was dragged round the walls of the city at the wheels of the victor's chariot: 'Gloriante rege, Achillem, a quo genus ipse deduceret, imitatum se esse, pœna in hostem capienda.' Curt.

7. The taking of Gaza opened Egypt to Alexander, and the whole country submitted without opposition. Amidst the most incredible fatigues, he now led his army through the deserts of Lybia, to visit the temple of his father, Jupiter Ammon. On his return he built Alexandria, at the mouth of the Nile, a situation so happily chosen, that in twenty years it rose to great wealth and consequence, and afterwards became the capital of the Lower Egypt, and has ever since been one of the most flourishing cities in the world. Twenty other cities of the same name were reared by him in the course of his con-

quests. It is such works as these that justly entitle the Macedonian to the epithet of Great. By rearing in the midst of deserts those nurseries of population and of industry, he repaired the waste and havoc of his conquests. But for those monuments of his real glory, he would have merited from posterity no other epithet than that assigned him by the Brahmins of India, 'The Mighty Murderer.'

8. Returning from Egypt, Alexander traversed Assyria, and was met at Arbela by Darius, at the head of 700,000 men. The Persian had proffered peace, consenting to yield the whole country from the Euphrates to the Hellespont, to give Alexander his daughter in marriage, and the immense sum of 10,000 talents. But these terms were haughtily rejected, and peace refused, but upon the unqualified submission of his enemy. The Macedonian army did not exceed 40,000 men. The Persians were defeated at Arbela (B.C. 331), with the loss of 300,000 men, while the loss of the Macedonians is estimated by Arrian at not more than 1,200. Darius fled from province to province. At length, betrayed by Bessus, one of his own satraps, he was cruelly murdered; and the Persian empire, which had subsisted for 206 years from the time of Cyrus the Great, submitted to the conqueror, 330 B.C.

9. Alexander now projected the conquest of India, firmly persuaded that the gods had decreed him the sovereignty of the whole habitable globe. He penetrated to the Ganges, and would have advanced to the Eastern Ocean, had the spirit of his army kept pace with his ambition. But his troops, seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed. He returned to the Indus, from whence, sending round his fleet to the Persian Gulf under Nearchus, he marched his army across the desert to Persepolis.

10. Indignant that he had found a limit to his conquests, he abandoned himself to every excess of luxury and debauchery. The arrogance of his na-

ture, and the ardour of his passions, heightened by continual intemperance, broke out into the most outrageous excesses of cruelty, for which, in the few intervals of sober reflection, his ingenuous mind suffered the keenest remorse. From Persepolis he returned to Babylon, and there died in a fit of debauch, in the thirty-third year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, 324 B.C.

11. Of the character of Alexander the most opposite and contradictory estimates have been formed. While by some he is esteemed nothing better than a fortunate madman, he is by others celebrated for the grandeur, wisdom, and solidity of his political views. Truth is rarely to be found in extreme censure or applause. We may allow to Alexander the spirit and the talents of a great military genius, without combining with these the sober plans of a profound politician. His great object seems to have been the establishment of one great and permanent empire, of which the different parts would be united by mutual, political, and commercial advantages; and for this purpose he sought to do away with all national prejudices. But his early death frustrated all these great projects, and the ambition of his generals overturned the fabric he was erecting. In a moral view of his character, we see an excellent and ingenuous nature corrupted at length by an unvarying current of success, and a striking example of the fatal violence of the passions, when eminence of fortune removes all restraint, and flattery stimulates to their uncontrolled indulgence.

XVII.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

1. ALEXANDER, on his death-bed, named no successor, but gave his ring to Perdiccas, one of his officers. When his courtiers asked him to whom he wished the empire to devolve upon his death, he re-

plied, 'To the most worthy;' and he is said to have added, that he foresaw this legacy would prepare for him very extraordinary funeral rites: a prediction which was fully verified. Shortly after his death, his queen Roxana gave birth to a son, who was named Alexander. He also left by Barsine, the widow of Memnon of Rhodes, a son named Hercules, and he had a half-brother, named Philip Aridæus, who was of weak mind.

2. Perdiccas, sensible that his pretensions would not justify a direct assumption of the government of this vast empire, brought about a division of the whole among thirty-three of the principal officers; to each of whom he assigned the charge of a province, and to himself he reserved the commander-in-chiefship of the army: trusting to their inevitable dissensions, he proposed by that means to reduce all of them under his own authority. Hence arose a series of wars and intrigues, of which the detail is barren both of amusement and useful information. It is sufficient to say, that their consequence was a total extirpation of the family of Alexander, and a new partition of the empire into four great monarchies: Macedon, with a part of Greece; Thrace; Egypt, with Cyrene and Cyprus; and Syria, with all Upper Asia; the shares of Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus: of these the most powerful were that of Syria, under Seleucus and his descendants; and that of Egypt, under the Ptolemies.

'We cannot,' says Condillac, 'fix our attention on the history of the successors of Alexander, though a great theatre is opened to our view, a variety of scenes, and multiplied catastrophes. A picture is often displeasing from the very circumstance of its greatness. We lose the connexion of its parts, because the eye cannot take them in at once. Still less will a large picture give us pleasure, if every part of it presents a different scene, each unconnected with the other.' Such is the history of the successors of Alexander.

XVIII.

FALL AND CONQUEST OF GREECE.

1. Nor is the history of Greece from the period of the death of Alexander any longer an interesting or pleasing object of contemplation. Demosthenes once more made a noble attempt to vindicate the national freedom, and to rouse his countrymen, the Athenians, to shake off the yoke of Macedon. But it was too late. The pacific councils of Phocion suited better the languid spirit of this once illustrious people.

2. The history of the different republics present from this time nothing but a disgusting series of uninteresting revolutions; with the exception only of that last effort made by the Achæan states to revive the expiring liberty of their country. The republic of Achaia was a league of a few of the smaller states to vindicate their freedom against the domineering spirit of the greater. They committed the government of the league to Aratus of Sicyon, with the title of Prætor, a young man of great powers of mind and of high ambition, who immediately conceived the more extensive project of rescuing the whole of Greece from the dominion of Macedon. But the jealousy of the greater states rendered this scheme abortive. Sparta refused to range herself under the guidance of the prætor of Achaia: and Aratus, forgetting his patriotic designs, sought only now to wreak his vengeance against the Lacedæmonians. For this purpose, with the most inconsistent policy, he courted the aid even of the Macedonians; the very tyrants who had enslaved his country.

3. The period was now come for the intervention of a foreign power, which was to reduce all under its wide-spreading dominion. The Romans were at this time the most powerful of all the contemporary nations. The people of Ætolia, attacked by the

Macedonians, with a rash policy, besought the aid of the Romans, who, eager to add to their dominïon this devoted country, cheerfully obeyed the summons, and speedily accomplished the reduction of Macedonia. Perseus, its last sovereign, was led captive to Rome, and graced the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, 167 B.C. From that period, the Romans were hastily advancing to the dominion of all Greece; a progress, in which their art was more conspicuous than their virtue. They gained their end by fostering dissensions between the states, which they directed to their own advantage; corrupting their principal citizens, and using, in fine, every art of the most insidious policy. A pretext was only wanting to unsheathe the sword; and this was furnished by the Achæan states, who insulted the deputies of imperial Rome. This drew on them at once the thunder of the Roman arms: Metellus marched his legions into Greece, gave them battle, and entirely defeated them. Mummius, the consul, terminated the work, and made an easy conquest of the whole of Greece, which from that period became a Roman province, under the name of Achaia, 146 B.C.

4. Rome had acquired from her conquests a flood of wealth, and began now to manifest a taste for luxury and a spirit of refinement. In these points Greece was to her conquerors an instructer and a model:—

> **Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit, et artes**
> **Intulit agresti Latio.—**

Hence, even though vanquished, she was regarded with a species of respect, by her ruder masters.

XIX.

POLITICAL REFLECTIONS ARISING FROM THE HISTORY OF THE STATES OF GREECE.

1. The revolutions which the states of Greece underwent, and the situations into which they were

thrown by their alternate connexion and differences with each other, and their wars with foreign nations, were so various, that their history is a school of instruction in political science: as there is scarce a doctrine in that important science which may not find an example or an illustration from their history. The surest test of the truth or falsehood of abstract principles of politics, is their application to actual experience and to the history of nations.

2. The oppression which the states of Greece suffered under their ancient despots, a set of tyrants who owed their elevation to violence, and whose rule was subject to no control, or constitutional restraints, was assuredly a most justifiable motive for their establishing a new form of government, which promised them the enjoyment of greater political freedom. We believe, too, that those new forms of government were framed by their virtuous legislators in the true spirit of patriotism. But as to the real merits of those political fabrics, it is certain that they were very far from corresponding in practice with what was expected from them in theory. We seek in vain, either in the history of Athens or Lacedæmon, for the beautiful idea of a well-ordered commonwealth. The revolutions of government which they were ever experiencing, the eternal factions with which they were embroiled, plainly demonstrate that there was a radical defect in the structure of the machine, which precluded the possibility of regular motion. The condition of the people under those governments was such as partook more of servitude and oppression than that of the subjects of the most despotic monarchies. The slaves formed the actual majority of the inhabitants in all the states of Greece. To these, the free citizens behaved with the most inhuman rigour: nor were they more inclined to a humane and liberal conduct to those of their own condition, from bondage being a consequence of the contraction of debts even by a free man. Thus a great proportion even of the free citi-

zens were actually subject to the tyrannical control of their fellow-citizens. Nor were their richer classes in the actual enjoyment of a rational liberty and independence. They were perpetually divided into factions, which servilely ranked themselves under the banners of the contending chiefs of the republic; and these maintained their influence over their partisans by the most shameful corruption and bribery, of which the means were supplied alone by the plunder of the public. The whole was, therefore, a system of servility and debasement of spirit, which left nothing of a free or ingenuous nature in the condition of individuals, nor any thing that could furnish encomium to a real advocate for the dignity of human nature.

Such was the condition of the chief republics of antiquity. Their governments promised in theory what they never conferred in practice—the political happiness of the citizens.

3. 'In democracy,' says Dr. Fergusson, 'men must love equality; they must respect the rights of their fellow-citizens; they must be satisfied with that degree of consideration they can procure by their abilities fairly measured against those of an opponent; they must labour for the public without hope of profit; they must reject every attempt to create a personal dependence.'—This is the picture of a republic in theory. If we reverse this picture in every single particular, and take its direct opposite, we shall have the true portrait of a republican government in practice.

4. It is the fundamental theory of Montesquieu's *Spirit of Laws*, that the three distinct forms of government, the monarchical, despotical, and republican, are influenced by the three separate principles of honour, fear, and virtue; and this theory is the foundation on which the author builds a great part of his political doctrines. That each of these principles is exclusively essential to its respective form of government, but unnecessary and even prejudicial

in the others, is a position contrary both to reason and to truth. No form of government can subsist where every one of those principles has not its operation. The admission of such a theory leads to the most mischievous conclusions; as, for example, that in monarchies the state dispenses with virtue in its officers and magistrates; the public employments ought to be venal; and that crimes, if kept secret, are of no consequence.

5. It is only in the infant periods of the Grecian history, that we are to look for those splendid examples of patriotism and heroic virtue, which the ardent mind of uncorrupted youth will ever delight to contemplate. The most remarkable circumstance which strikes us on comparing the latter with the more early periods of the history of the Greeks, is the total change in the genius and spirit of the people. The ardour of patriotism, the thirst of military glory, the enthusiasm of liberty, decline with the rising grandeur and opulence of the nation; and an enthusiasm succeeds of another species, and far less worthy in its aim; an admiration of the fine arts, a violent passion for the objects of taste, and for the refinements of luxury.—This leads us to consider Greece in the light in which, after the loss of her liberty, she still continued to attract the admiration of other nations.

XX.

STATE OF THE ARTS IN GREECE.

1. It is not among the Greeks that we are to look for the greatest improvement in the useful or the necessary arts of life. When we speak of the eminence of this people in the arts, we are understood to mean those which, by distinction, are termed the fine arts, or those which mark the refinement of a people, and which come in the train of luxury. In agriculture, manufactures, commerce, they never were greatly distinguished. But in

those which are termed the fine arts—architecture, sculpture, painting, and music, Greece surpassed all the contemporary nations: and the monuments of these which yet remain, are the models of imitation, and the confessed standard of excellence, in the judgment of the most polished nations of modern times.

2. After the defeat of Xerxes, the active spirit of the Athenians, which would have otherwise languished for want of an object, taking a new direction from luxury, displayed itself signally in all the works of taste in the fine arts. The administration of Pericles was the era of luxury and splendour. The arts broke out at once with surprising lustre, and architecture, sculpture, and painting, were carried to the summit of perfection. This golden age of the arts in Greece endured for about a century, till after the death of Alexander the Great.

3. The Greeks were the parents of that system of architecture which is universally allowed to be the most perfect.

The Greek architecture consisted of three distinct orders; the Doric, the Ionic, and Corinthian.

The Doric was probably the first regular order; it has a masculine grandeur, and a superior air of strength to both the others. It is therefore best adapted to works of great magnitude and of a sublime character. The character of sublimity is essentially connected with chasteness and simplicity. Of this order is the temple of Theseus at Athens, built ten years after the battle of Marathon, that is, 481 years before the Christian era; a fabric which has stood upwards of 2,300 years, and is at this day almost entire.

The Ionic order is light and elegant. The former has been compared to the robust and muscular proportions of a man; the latter to the more slender and delicate proportions of a woman. The character of this order is likewise simplicity, which is as essential a requisite to true beauty, as it is to grandeur and

sublimity. The Ionic admits with propriety of decorations which would be unsuitable to the Doric. Of this order were constituted some of the noblest of the Greek temples; particularly the temple of Apollo at Miletus, that of the Delphic Oracle, and the superb temple of Diana at Ephesus, classed among the wonders of the world.

The Corinthian marks an age of luxury and magnificence, when pomp and splendour had become the predominant passion, but had not yet extinguished the taste for the sublime and beautiful. It had its origin at Corinth, one of the most luxurious cities of Greece; and was, probably, the production of an artist who had to effect the greatest splendour and at the same time to preserve a grandeur and beauty of proportions. It attempts therefore an union of all these characters, but satisfies not the chastened judgment, and pleases only a corrupted taste. Of this order were built many of the most splendid temples, particularly that of Jupiter Olympus at Athens, founded by Pisistratus, but not completely finished till 700 years after, under the reign of Adrian. Its remains are yet very considerable.

The characters of the three orders of Grecian architecture have been happily distinguished by the Poet of the Seasons :—

> ——————— 'First unadorn'd,
> And nobly plain, the manly Doric rose;
> The Ionic then, with decent matron grace,
> Her airy pillar heaved; luxuriant last
> The rich Corinthian spread her wanton wreath.'
> *Thomson's Liberty, Part 2.*

4. The Tuscan and the Composite orders are of Italian origin. The Etruscan architecture appears to be nearly allied to the Grecian, but to possess an inferior degree of elegance. The Trajan pillar at Rome is of this order. This magnificent column has braved the injuries of time, and is entire at the present day. Its excellence consists less in the form and proportions of the pillar, than in the admirable sculpture, representing the victories of Trajan over

the Dacians, which decorates it.—The Composite order is what its name implies; it shews that the Greeks had in the three original orders exhausted all the principles of grandeur and beauty; and that it was not possible to frame a fourth, but by combining the former.

5. The Gothic architecture, which is often found to produce a striking effect, offers no contradiction to these observations. The effect which it produces cannot be altogether accounted for by the rules of symmetry or harmony in the proportions between the several parts; but depends on a certain idea of vastness, gloominess, and solemnity, which are powerful ingredients in the sublime. Of this order is the cathedral of Milan, one of the noblest Gothic structures in the world.

6. Sculpture and painting were brought by the Greeks to as high a pitch of perfection as architecture. The remains of Grecian sculpture are at this day the most perfect models of the art; and the modern artists have no means of attaining to excellence so certain as the study of those great masterpieces.

7. The excellence of the Greeks in sculpture may perhaps be accounted for chiefly from their having the human figure often before their eyes quite naked, and in all its various attitudes, both in the *Palæstra*, and in their public games. The antique statues have therefore a grandeur united with perfect simplicity, because the attitude is not the result of an artificial disposition of the figure, as in the modern academies, but is nature unconstrained. Thus, in the Dying Gladiator, when we observe the relaxation of the muscles, and the visible failure of strength and life, we cannot doubt that nature was the sculptor's immediate model of imitation.*

8. And this nature was in reality superior to what we now see in the ordinary race of men. The con-

* Cresilas vulneratum deficientem fecit, ex quo possit intelligi quantum restet animi. *Plin. lib.* 36.

stant practice of gymnastic exercises gave a finer conformation of body than what is now to be found in the vitiated pupils of modern effeminacy, the artificial children of modern fashion.

9. A *secondary* cause of the eminence of the Greeks in the arts of design, was their theology, which furnished an ample exercise for the genius of the sculptor and painter.

10. We must speak with more diffidence of the ability of the Greeks in painting, than we do of their superiority in sculpture; because the existing specimens of the former are very few, and the pieces which are preserved are probably not the most excellent. But in the want of actual evidence, we have every presumption that the Greeks had attained to equal perfection in the art of painting and in sculpture; for if we find the judgment given by ancient writers of their excellence in sculpture, confirmed by the universal assent of the best critics among the moderns, we have just reason to presume an equal rectitude in the judgment which the same ancient writers have pronounced upon their paintings. If Pliny is right in his opinion of the merits of those statues which yet remain, the Venus of Praxiteles, and the Laocoon of Agesander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus, we have no reason to suppose his taste to be less just, when he celebrates the merits, and critically characterizes the different manners, of Zeuxis, Apelles, Parrhasius, Protogenes, and Timanthes, whose works have perished.

11. The paintings found in Herculaneum, Pompeii, the Sepulchrum Nasonianum at Rome, were probably the work of Greek artists; for we have no evidence that the Romans were ever eminent in any of the arts dependent on design. These paintings exhibit great knowledge of proportions, and of the chiaro-oscuro; but betray an ignorance of the rules of perspective.

12. The music of the ancients appears to have been very greatly inferior to that of the moderns.

13. The peculiar genius of the Greeks in the fine arts, extended its effects to the revolutions of their states, and influenced their fate as a nation. They consoled themselves for the loss of their liberty by the flattering distinction of being the humanizers of their conquerors, the unpolished Romans.

XXI.

OF THE GREEK POETS.

1. The Greeks were the first who reduced the athletic exercises to a system, and considered them as an object of general attention and importance. The Panathenæan, and afterwards the Olympic, the Pythian, Nemæan, and Isthmian games, were under the regulation of the laws, and subject to the rules laid down by the ablest statesmen and legislators. They contributed essentially to the improvement of the nation: and while they cherished martial ardour, and promoted hardiness and agility of body, cultivated likewise urbanity and politeness.

2. The games of Greece were not confined to gymnastic or athletic exercises. They encouraged competitions in genius and learning. They were the resort of the poets, the historians, and the philosophers.

3. In all nations poetry is of greater antiquity than prose composition. The earliest prose writers in Greece, Pherecydes of Scyros, and Cadmus of Miletus, were 350 years posterior to Homer. Any remains of the more ancient poets, as Linus, Orpheus, &c. are extremely suspicious. Homer, of whose birth both the place and era are very uncertain, is generally supposed to have been a native of Ionia, and to have flourished about 907 B.C.; to have followed the occupation of a wandering minstrel, and to have composed his poems in detached fragments, and separate ballads, and episodes. Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, is said to have been

the first who brought from Ionia into Greece complete copies of the Iliad and Odyssey; which, however, were not arranged in the order in which we now see them, till 250 years afterwards by Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens. Pisistratus, about 540 B.C. first employed learned men to collect and methodise these fragments; and to this we owe the complete poems of the Iliad and Odyssey. They were revised by Callisthenes and Anaxarchus, at the command of Alexander the Great; and again finally revised by the celebrated grammarian and critic, Aristarchus, by order of Ptolemy Philomater. But the distinguishing merits of Homer are independent of all artificial arrangement. His profound knowledge of human nature, his masterly skill in the delineation of character, his faithful and minute description of ancient manners, his command of the passions, his genius for the sublime and beautiful, and the harmony of his poetical numbers, have deservedly established his reputation as the greatest poet of antiquity. His fidelity as an historian has been questioned; but the great outlines of his narrative are probably authentic. The moral of the Iliad is, that dissension among the chiefs of a country is generally fatal to the people; and that of the Odyssey, that prudence joined to courage and perseverance are sufficient to surmount the most powerful obstacles.

4. Hesiod was nearly contemporary with Homer: a poet, of whose merits we should be little sensible, were they not seen through the medium of an immense antiquity. The poem of the Works and Days contains some judicious precepts of agriculture. The Theogony is an obscure history of the origin of the gods, and the formation of the universe.

5. About two centuries after Homer and Hesiod, flourished Archilochus, the inventor of Iambic verse; and Terpander, who is equally celebrated as a poet and a musician, but of whose verses we have no remains. The two succeeding centuries were dis-

tinguished by nine lyric poets of great celebrity. Alcmann and Stesichorus, of whom we have but a few imperfect remains; Sappho, of whose composition we have two exquisite odes; Alcæus, Simonides, Ibycus, and Bacchylides, of whom there are some fine fragments; and Pindar and Anacreon, who have left enough to allow an accurate estimate of their merits.

6. Pindar was esteemed by the ancients the chief of the lyric poets. He possesses unbounded fancy, and great sublimity of imagery; but his digressions are so rapid and so frequent, that we cannot discover the chain of thought; and his expression is allowed, even by Longinus, to be often obscure and unintelligible.

7. Anacreon is a great contrast to Pindar. His fancy suggests only familiar and luxurious pictures. He has no comprehension of the sublime, but contents himself with the easy, the graceful, and the wanton. His morality is loose, and his sentiments little else than the effusions of a voluptuary, and therefore too immoral to find favour with the friends of virtue.

8. The collection termed *Anthologia*, which consists chiefly of ancient epigrams, contains many valuable specimens of the taste and poetical fancy of the Greeks, and contributes materially to the illustration of their manners. The best of the modern epigrams may be traced to this source.

9. The era of the origin of dramatic composition among the Greeks, is supposed to have commenced about 590 B.C. Thespis, who is said to have been the inventor of tragedy, was contemporary with Solon. Within little more than a century the Greek drama was carried to its highest perfection; for Æschylus died 456 B.C. Æschylus wrote sixty-six tragedies; for thirteen of which he gained the first prize of dramatic poetry at the Olympic games. Only seven are now extant. Like Shakspeare, his genius is sublime, and his imagination unbounded.

He disdained regularity of plan, and all artificial restriction; but unfortunately he disdained likewise the restraints of decency and of good morals.

10. Euripides and Sophocles flourished about fifty years after Æschylus. Euripides is most masterly in painting the passion of love, both in its tenderest emotions and in its most violent paroxysms: yet the characters of his women demonstrate that he had no great opinion of the virtues of the sex. Longinus does not rate high his talent for the sublime; but he possessed a much superior excellence; his verses, with great eloquence and harmony, breathe the most admirable morality. There remain twenty tragedies of Euripides, out of about seventy-five said to have been written by him; and of these the Medea is deemed the most excellent.

11. Sophocles shared with Euripides the palm of dramatic poetry; and is judged to have surpassed him in the grand, the terrible, and the sublime. Of 120 tragedies which he composed, only seven remain. They display great knowledge of the human heart, and a general chastity and simplicity of expression, which give the greater force to the occasional strokes of the sublime. The Œdipus of Sophocles is esteemed the most perfect production of the Greek stage.

12. The Greek comedy is divided into the *ancient*, the *middle*, and the *new*. The first was a licentious satire and mimicry of real personages exhibited by name upon the stage. The laws repressed this extreme license, and gave birth to the middle comedy, which continued the satirical delineation of real persons, but under fictitious names. The last improvement consisted in banishing all personal satire, and confining comedy to a delineation of manners. This was the new comedy. Of the first species, the ancient, we have no remains. The dramas of Aristophanes, of which we have eleven, are an example of the second or middle comedy. The grossness of his raillery, and the malevolence

which frequently inspired it, are a reproach to the morals of that people which could tolerate it. Yet his works have their value, as throwing light upon ancient manners.

13. Of the new comedy Menander was the bright example; possessing a vein of the most delicate wit, with the utmost purity of moral sentiment. Unfortunately we have nothing of him remaining but a few fragments preserved by Athenæus, Plutarch, Stobœus, and Eustathius. We see a great deal of his merits, however, in his copyist and translator Terence.

14. The actors both in the Greek and Roman theatres wore masks, of which the features were strongly painted, and the mouth so constructed as to increase the power of the voice.—It is probable the tragedy and comedy of the Greeks and Romans were set to music, and sung like the recitative in the Italian opera; and sometimes one person was employed to recite or sing the part, and another to perform the corresponding action or gesticulation.

15. The Mimes originally made a part of the ancient comedy, and consisted of grotesque dances played between the acts; but becoming popular with the vulgar, they became a separate entertainment, representing burlesque parodies on the serious tragedy and comedy. The Pantomimes differed from the *mimes* in this respect, that they consisted solely of gesticulation, and were carried to great perfection. They seem to have been very similar to our modern pantomimes.

XXII.

OF THE GREEK HISTORIANS.

1. The genius of the Greeks was in no department of literary composition more distinguished than in history; and the most eminent of their historians were nearly contemporary with each other. Herodotus died 413 B. C.; Thucydides, 391 B. C.; and

Xenophon was about twenty years younger than Thucydides. Herodotus, a native of Halicarnassus, one of the Greek cities of Asia has written the joint history of the Greeks and Persians, from the time of Cyrus the Great (599 B.C.) to the battles of Platæa and Mycale, a period of 120 years. He treats incidentally likewise of the history of several other nations —of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Medes, and Lydians. His veracity is to be depended on in all matters that fell under his own observation; but he admits too easily the reports of others, and is in general fond of the marvellous. His style is pure, and he has a copious elocution.

2. Thucydides was a native of Athens, and of an illustrious family. He was an able general, and has written, with great ability, the history of the first twenty-one years of the Peloponnesian war; introducing it with a short narrative of the preceding periods of the history of Greece. He is justly esteemed for his fidelity and candour. His style is a contrast to the full and flowing period of Herodotus, possessing a sententious brevity, which is at once lively and energetic. The history of the remaining six years of the war of Peloponnesus was written by Theopompus and Xenophon.

3. Xenophon commanded the Greek army in the service of Cyrus the younger, in his culpable enterprise against his brother Artaxerxes. (See Sect. XIII. § 6.) After the failure of this enterprise, Xenophon directed that astonishing retreat from Babylon to the Euxine, of which he has given an interesting and faithful narrative. He wrote likewise the Cyropedia, or the history of the elder Cyrus, which is believed to be rather an imaginary delineation of an accomplished prince than a real narration. He continued the history of Thucydides, and has left two excellent political tracts on the constitutions of Lacedæmon and Athens. His style is simple and energetic, familiar, unadorned, and free from all affectation.

4. Greece, in her decline, produced some historians of great eminence. Polybius, a native of Megalopolis, in Arcadia, wrote forty books of the Roman and Greek history during his own age; that is, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the reduction of Macedonia into a Roman province; but of this great work only the first five books are entire, with an epitome of the following twelve. He merits less the praise of eloquence and purity than of authentic information, and most judicious reflection.

5. Diodorus Siculus flourished in the time of Augustus, and composed, in forty books, a general history of the world, under the title of Bibliotheca Historica. No more remain than fifteen books; of which the first five treat of the fabulous periods, and the history of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, &c., prior to the Trojan war. The next five are wanting. The remainder brings down the history from the expedition of Xerxes into Greece till after the death of Alexander the Great. He is taxed with chronological inaccuracy in the earlier parts of his work; but the authenticity and correctness of the latter periods are unimpeached. His style, though not to be compared to that of Xenophon or Thucydides, is pure, perspicuous, and unaffected.

6. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, eminent both as a historian and rhetorician, flourished in the age of Augustus. His Roman Antiquities contain much valuable information, though his work is too much tinctured with the spirit of systematizing.

7. Plutarch, a native of Chæronea in Bœotia, flourished in the reign of Nero. His lives of illustrious men is one of the most valuable of the literary works of the ancients: introducing us to an acquaintance with the private character and manners of those eminent persons whose public achievements are recorded by professed historians. His morality is excellent; his style is clear and energetic, and

when the subject demands it, rises frequently to great eloquence.

8. Arrian, a native of Nicomedia, wrote, in the reign of Adrian, seven books of the wars of Alexander, with great judgment and fidelity; his narrative being composed on the authority of Aristobulus and Ptolemy, two of Alexander's principal officers. No historical record, therefore, has a better claim to the public faith. His style is unadorned, but chaste, perspicuous, and manly. It is to his writings that we owe all our knowledge of the sublime morality of Epictetus, of whom he was the favourite disciple.

XXIII.

OF THE GREEK PHILOSOPHERS.

1. After the time of Homer and Hesiod, the increasing relish for poetical composition gave rise to a set of men termed Rhapsodists, whose employment was to recite at the games and festivals the composition of the older poets, and to comment on their merits and explain their doctrines. Some of these founding schools of instruction, were dignified by their pupils with the epithet of Sophists, or teachers of wisdom.

2. The most ancient school of philosophy was that founded by Thales, of Miletus, 640 B.C., and termed the Ionic sect, from the country of the founder. Thales is celebrated for his knowledge both in geometry and astronomy. His metaphysical doctrines are but imperfectly known. He taught the belief of a First Cause, and an overruling Providence; but supposed the Divinity to animate the universe, as the soul does the body. The moral doctrines of the Ionic school were pure and rational. The most eminent of the disciples of Thales were Anaximander and Anaxagoras.

3. Soon after the Ionic, arose the Italian sect, so

termed from the country where Pythagoras, its founder, is said to have first taught. Pythagoras is generally believed to have been a native of Samos, and to have been born about 586 B. C. He is supposed to have derived much of his knowledge from Egypt; and he had, like the Egyptian priests, a public doctrine for the people, and a private for his disciples; the former a good system of morals, the latter probably unintelligible mystery. His notions of the Divinity were akin to those of Thales; but he believed in the eternity of the universe, and its coexistence with the Deity. He taught the transmigration of the soul through different bodies. His disciples lived in common; they abstained rigorously from the flesh of animals; they held music in high estimation, as a corrective of the passions. Pythagoras believed the earth to be a sphere, the planets to be inhabited, and the fixed stars to be the suns and centres of other systems. His most eminent followers were Empedocles, Epicharmus, Ocellus Lucanus, Timæus, Archytas.

4. The Eleatic sect of philosophy, believed to have sprung from the Pythagorean or Italic, was founded by Xenophanes, about 500 B. C. Its chief supporters were Parmenides, Zeno, and Leucippus, natives of Elea, from which city the sect took its name. The metaphysical notions of this sect were utterly unintelligible. They maintained, that things had neither beginning, end, nor any change; and that all the changes we perceive are in our own senses. Yet Leucippus taught the doctrine of atoms, from whence he supposed all material substances to be formed. Of this sect were Democritus and Heraclitus.

5. The Socratic school arose from the Ionic. Socrates died 401 B. C., the wisest, the most virtuous of the Greeks He exploded the futile logic of the Sophists, which consisted of a set of general arguments applicable to all manner of questions, and by which they could, with an appearance of plausibility, maintain either side of any proposition. Socrates

always brought his antagonist to particulars; beginning with a simple and undeniable position, which being granted, another followed equally undeniable, till the disputant was conducted step by step, by his own concessions, to that side of the question on which lay the truth. His rivals lost all credit as philosophers, but had influence to procure the destruction of the man who had exposed them. The doctrines of Socrates are to be learned from Plato and Xenophon. He taught the belief of a first cause, whose beneficence is equal to his power, the Creator and Ruler of the Universe. He inculcated the moral agency of man, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. He exploded the Polytheistic superstitions of his country, and thence became the victim of an accusation of impiety. (See Section XIII. § 5.) The most eminent of the disciples of Socrates were Plato and Xenophon.

6. The morality of Socrates was successfully cultivated by the Cyrenaic sect, but was pushed the length of extravagance by the Cynics. The founder of this sect was Antisthenes, a pupil of Socrates. Virtue, in their opinion, consisted in renouncing all the conveniences of life. They clothed themselves in rags, slept and eat in the streets, or wandered about the country with a stick and a knapsack. They condemned all knowledge as useless. They associated impudence with ignorance, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective without restraint. The most eminent of this sect was Diogenes.

7. The Megarean sect was founded by Euclid, not the mathematician, and were the happy inventors of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling. The most eminent were Eubulides, Alexinus Eleensis, Diodorus and Stilpo.

8. The Academic sect had Plato for its founder, a native of Ægina, and thus by his country an Athenian; he was born about 430, B.C.; a philosopher, whose doctrines have had a more extensive and more

lasting empire over the minds of mankind than those perhaps of any other among the ancients. This is in part owing to their intrinsic merit, and in part to the eloquence with which they have been propounded. Plato had the most sublime ideas of the Divinity and his attributes. He taught that the human soul was a portion of the Divinity, and that this alliance with the eternal mind might be improved into actual intercourse with the Supreme Being, by abstracting the soul from all the corruptions it derives from the body; a doctrine highly flattering to the pride of man, and generating that mystical enthusiasm which has the most powerful empire over a warm imagination. Some of the most eminent men of Greece were his disciples—Demosthenes, Isocrates, and Aristotle.

9. The Platonic philosophy found its chief opponents in four remarkable sects—those of Aristotle, of Pyrrho, of Zeno, and Epicurus; in other words, the Peripatetic, the Sceptic, the Stoic, and the Epicurean.

10. Aristotle, the founder of the Peripatetic sect, was born at Stagyra, in Thrace, a city then under the dominion of Macedonia. He was the tutor of Alexander the Great, and established his school in the Lyceum at Athens; a philosopher, whose tenets have found more zealous partisans, and more rancorous opponents, than those of any other. It was his custom to discourse to his disciples in walking, and hence his philosophy was termed *peripatetic*. His Metaphysics, from the sententious brevity of his expression, are extremely obscure, and have given rise to numberless commentaries. The best analysis of his logic is given by Dr. Reid, in Lord Kames's Sketches of the History of Man. His physical works are the result of great observation and acquaintance with nature; and his critical writings, as his Poetics and Art of Rhetoric, display both taste and judgment. It is the latter works that will ever continue to be most valued. The peculiar passion of Aristotle was

that of classifying, arranging, and combining the objects of his knowledge so as to reduce all to a few principles; a dangerous propensity in philosophy, and repressive of improvement in science.

11. The Sceptical sect was founded by Pyrrho, a native of Elea. They formed no systems of their own, but endeavoured to weaken the foundations of those of all others. They inculcated universal doubt as the only true wisdom. There was, in their opinion, no essential difference between vice and virtue, farther than as human compact had discriminated them. Tranquillity of mind they supposed to be the state of the greatest happiness, and this was to be attained by absolute indifference to all dogmas or opinions.

12. The Stoics proposing to themselves the same end, tranquillity of mind, took a nobler path to arrive at it. They endeavoured to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity. They believed all nature, and God himself the soul of the universe, to be regulated by fixed and immutable laws. The human soul being a portion of the Divinity, man cannot complain of being actuated by that necessity which actuates the Divinity himself. His pains and his pleasures are determined by the same laws which determine his existence. Virtue consists in accommodating the disposition of the mind to the immutable laws of nature; vice in opposing those laws; vice therefore is folly, and virtue the only true wisdom. A beautiful picture of the Stoical philosophy is found in the Enchiridion of Epictetus, and in the meditations of M. Aurelius Antoninus. The founder of this sect was Zeno, a native of Cyprus, and disciple of Crates the Cynic.

13. Epicurus taught that man's supreme happiness consisted in pleasure. He himself limited the term so as to make it mean only the practice of virtue. But if pleasure is allowed to be the object, every man will draw it from those sources which he finds can best supply it. It might have been the pleasure

of Epicurus to be chaste and temperate. We are told it was so; but others find their pleasure in intemperance and luxury; and such was the taste of his principal followers. Epicurus held that the Deity was indifferent to all the actions of man. They therefore had no other counsellor than their own conscience, and no other guide than the instinctive desire of their own happiness.

14. The Greek philosophy, on the whole, affords little else than a picture of the imbecility and caprice of the human mind. Its teachers, instead of experiment and observation, satisfied themselves with constructing theories; and these, wanting fact for their basis, have only served to perplex the understanding, and retard equally the advancement of sound morality and the progress of useful knowledge.

XXIV.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

1. In the delineation of ancient history, Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention; and the history of this empire, in its progress to universal dominion, and afterwards in its decline and fall, involves a collateral account of all the other nations of antiquity which in those periods are deserving of our consideration.

2. Although we cannot conjecture with certainty as to the era when Italy was first peopled, we have every reason to believe that it was inhabited by a refined and cultivated nation many ages before the Roman name was known. These were the Etruscans, of whom there exist at this day monuments in the fine arts, which prove them to have been a splendid, luxurious, and highly polished people. Their alphabet resembling the Phœnician, disposes us to believe them of eastern origin. The Roman historians mention them as a powerful and opulent nation long before the origin of Rome, 'Tuscorum ante Romanum

imperium latè terra marique opes patuere,' Lib. v. 33; and Dionysius of Halicarnassus deduces most of the religious rites of the Romans from Etruria.

3. The rest of Italy was divided among a number of independent tribes or nations, comparatively in a rude and uncultivated state; Umbrians, Ligurians, Sabines, Veientes, Latins, Æqui, Volsci, &c. Latium, a territory of fifty miles in length and sixteen in breadth, contained forty-seven independent cities or states; the other adjacent states were divided in the same manner—a state of society in which constant warfare is unavoidable.

4. The origin of the city and state of Rome is involved in great uncertainty. Dionysius supposes two cities of that name to have existed, and to have perished before the foundation of the city built by Romulus. The vulgar account of the latter is, that it was founded (752 B. C.) by a troop of shepherds or banditti, who peopled their new city by carrying off the wives and daughters of their neighbours the Sabines.

5. The great outlines of the first constitution of the Roman government, though generally attributed to the political abilities of Romulus, seem to have a natural foundation in the usages of barbarous nations, and in the state of manners which existed in Italy before the foundation of Rome. Other institutions bear the traces of political skill and positive enactment.

6. Romulus is said to have divided his people into three tribes, and each tribe into ten *curiæ*. The lands he distributed into three portions; one for the support of the government, another for the maintenance of religion, and the third he divided into equal portions of two acres to each Roman citizen. He instituted a *senate* or council of 100 members (afterwards increased to 200), to whom he gave power to see the laws enforced, to consult concerning all affairs of state, and to report their opinion to the people in the *comitia* or assemblies, who were invested

with the right of final determination in all matters of public importance. The Patrician families were the descendants of these first senators (*centum patres*); so that in a very short time a great distinction of rank arose from birth among the Romans.

7. The king had the nomination of the senators, the privilege of assembling the people, and a right of appeal in all questions of importance. He had the command of the army, which at first comprehended the whole body of the people. He was chief priest, or *Pontifex Maximus*, and regulated every thing that concerned, or was even remotely connected with, religion. He had, as a guard, twelve lictors, and to these he added a troop of 300 horsemen named *Celeres* or *Equites* (Roman knights), who became the second rank in the state after the patricians. This body was augmented by Tarquinius Priscus to 1800. These regulations are of positive institution; others arose naturally from the state of society.

8. The *patria potestas*, or the power which every father of a family enjoyed over his household, is of the latter nature, being common to all barbarous tribes.—The limitation of all arts to the slaves arose from the constant employment of the citizens in warfare or in agriculture.

9. Other institutions bear also the stamp of political knowledge and enlargement of ideas; such as the Clientela, or the connexion of patron and client. This admirable institution at once united the citizens, and maintained an useful subordination between the Patrician order and the Plebeian. Every Plebeian was allowed to choose a senator for his patron, whose duty it was to defend and protect him; and he, in his turn, received from his clients, not only homage, but support and assistance when he required them.

10. The Sabines were the most formidable enemy of the early Romans; and a wise policy united for a while the two nations into one state. After the death of Romulus, who reigned thirty-seven years, Numa, a Sabine, was elected king. His disposition

was pious and pacific, and he endeavoured to give his people the same character. He pretended to divine inspiration, in order to give the greater authority to his laws, which in themselves were excellent. He multiplied the national gods, built temples, and instituted different classes of priests—*Flamines*, from the flame-coloured tufts upon their caps; *Salii* (*a saliendo*), priests who had the charge of the sacred buckler, which was said to have dropped from heaven, &c., and a variety of religious ceremonies. The Flamines officiated each in the service of a particular deity; the Salii guarded the sacred bucklers; the Vestals cherished the sacred fire; the Augurs and Aruspices divined future events from the flight of birds, and the entrails of victims. He built the temple of Janus, which was kept open during war, and shut during peace. Most of the institutions of this prince were calculated to encourage the pacific spirit; and his policy consisted in using religion as an instrument of government.—Numa reformed the calendar, regulating the year at twelve lunar months, and distinguished the days for civil occupation (*Fasti*) from those dedicated to religious rest (*Nefasti*). Agriculture was lawful on the latter, as a duty of religion. Numa reigned forty-three years, during the whole of which time the temple of Janus remained shut; so much does the disposition of a people depend on the character of a sovereign.

11. Tullus Hostilius, the third king of Rome, of warlike disposition, subdued the Albans, Fidenates, and other neighbouring states. The Sabines, now disunited from the Romans, were among the most powerful of their enemies. Tullus reigned thirty-three years. The temple of Janus was opened, and was not shut during his whole reign.

12. Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was elected king on the death of Tullus. He inherited the piety and virtues of his grandfather, and joined to these the talents of a warrior. He increased the population of Rome, by naturalizing some of the

conquered states; enlarged and fortified the city, and built the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber. He reigned gloriously twenty-four years.

13. Tarquinius Priscus, the son of a citizen of Corinth, popular from his wealth and liberality, was elected to the vacant throne. He, owing his election to the favour of some of the principal citizens, enlarged the senate by 100 new members, chosen from the plebeian families—these new senators were termed 'Patres minorum gentium.' This body consisted now of 300, at which number it remained for some centuries (down to the period of the Gracchi, when it was enlarged to 600). Tarquin was victorious in his wars, and he adorned and improved the city with works of utility and magnificence. He caused the walls to be built of hewn stone; he built the Circus Maximus, or Hippodrome, for the celebration of public games, for races, and athletic exercises; the Cloacæ, those immense common sewers, which lead to the belief that the new Rome had been built on the ruins of an ancient city of greater magnitude; he also commenced the building of the Capitol, on the top of the Tarpeian hill. Tarquinius was assassinated at the instigation of the sons of Ancus Martius, in the thirty-eighth year of his reign.

14. Servius Tullius (the son of a female captive,) who had married the daughter of Tarquinius, secured by his own address, and the intrigues of his mother-in-law, his election to the vacant throne. He courted popularity by acts of munificence; discharging the debts of the poor, dividing among the citizens his patrimonial lands, improving the city with useful edifices, and extending its boundaries. The new arrangement which he introduced in the division of the Roman citizens into classes and centuries, is a proof of much political ability, and merits attention, as on it depended many of the revolutions of the republic.

15. From the time that the Romans had admitted the Albans and Sabines to the rights of citizens, the

Urban and Rustic tribes were composed of three distinct nations, each of which had an equal share in the government. Each tribe being divided into ten *curiæ*, and each curia having an equal vote in the *Comitia*, or public assemblies, as every individual had in his tribe, all questions were decided by the majority of the suffrages of individuals. There was no pre-eminence or distinction between the *curiæ*, and the order in which they gave their votes was determined by lot. This was a reasonable constitution, so long as the fortunes of the citizens were nearly on a par; but, when riches came to be unequally divided, it was obvious that much inconvenience must have arisen from this equal partition of power, as the rich could easily, by bribery, command the suffrages of the poor. Besides, all the taxes had hitherto been levied by the head, without any regard to the inequality of fortunes. This impolitic and unjust mode of assessment furnished to Servius an excellent pretext for an entire change of system. His plan was, to remove the poorer citizens from all share of the government by exempting them from all public burdens, and making these fall solely on the rich; by this means he contrived to throw the whole power of the state into the hands of the superior order of the citizens, without injury or offence to the populace.

16. All the citizens were next required, under a heavy penalty, to declare upon oath their names, dwellings, number of their children, and amount of their fortune; that the taxes and contributions might be regulated according to their wealth. After this numeration, or *census*, Servius divided the whole citizens, without distinction of rank, birth, or nation, into *four tribes*, named from the quarters where they dwelt, the *Palatine*, *Suburran*, *Collatine*, and *Esquiline*. These comprehended only such as dwelt within the city. He formed other *tribes* of such as lived without the walls, or in the country, and enjoyed the privilege of Roman citizens—these were called the *Rustic Tribes*, and are frequently mentioned

in Roman history. Besides this local division, Servius distributed the whole people into six *classes*, and each class into several *centuries*, or portions of citizens, so called, not as actually consisting of 100, but as being obliged to furnish and maintain 100 men for the service of the state in time of war. In the first class, which consisted of the richest citizens, or those who were worth at least 100 *minæ* (about £300 sterling), there were no less than ninety-eight centuries. In the second class (those worth 75 *minæ*, about £225) there were twenty-two centuries. In the third (those worth 50 *minæ*, about £150) were twenty centuries. In the fourth (those worth 25 *minæ*, about £75) twenty-two centuries. In the fifth (those worth 12 *minæ*, about £36) thirty centuries. The sixth, or last class, though the most numerous of the whole, comprehending all the poorer citizens, formed only one century. Thus the whole body of the Roman people were divided into 193 centuries, or portions of citizens, so called, as furnishing each 100 soldiers in time of war. The sixth class was declared exempt from all taxes; they were called *capite censi*, as only making up a number, or sometimes *prolatarii*, the breeders of population. The other classes, according to the number of centuries of which they consisted, were rated for the public burdens at so much for each century.

17. It was evident that the poor had no reason to complain of this arrangement; but something was wanting to indemnify and conciliate the rich for the burdens to which they were subjected. For this purpose Servius enacted, that henceforth the *Comitia* should give their votes by centuries; the first class consisting of ninety-eight centuries, always voting first: thus, if these were of one mind, which was often the case in important questions, the suffrages of the rest were of no avail, and were not asked. If the first class were not unanimous, the second came to have a vote, and it was very rarely that the inferior classes were ever called upon to exercise their

right of suffrage. Thus, although the whole people were called to the *Comitia*, and all seemed to have an equal suffrage, yet, in reality, the richer classes determined every question, the suffrage of the poor being merely nominal; for as the whole people formed 193 centuries, and the first and second classes contained 120 of these, a majority was easily secured. Thus, in the *Comitia Centuriata*, in which the chief magistrates were elected, peace and war decreed, and all other important business discussed, the richer classes of the citizens had artfully secured to them the sole authority, the votes of the poor being of no avail. And such was the ingenuity of this policy, that all were pleased with it: the rich paid their taxes with cheerfulness, as the price of their power; and the poor gladly exchanged authority for immunities, until ambitious men rendered them dissatisfied. The census, performed every five years, was closed by a *lustrum*, or expiatory sacrifice; which consisted of a bull, a ram, and a hog; and hence that period of time was called a *lustrum*.

18. Servius, a genuine and enlightened patriot, was assassinated, after a reign of forty-four years, by his infamous daughter Tullia, married to Tarquinius, the grandson of Priscus, who thus paved the way for his own elevation to the throne. The government of Tarquin, surnamed the Proud, was systematically tyrannical. He ingratiated himself with the lower orders, to abase by their means the power of the higher; but insolent, rapacious, and cruel, he finally disgusted all ranks of his subjects. This sanguinary tyrant was suffered to reign for twenty-four years, and was at last punished for a crime which was not his own. His son Sextus, equally lawless and cruel, had committed a rape on the wife of Collatinus, who, unable to survive her dishonour, stabbed herself in the presence of her husband and kindred; this roused their vengeance, and procured, by their influence with their countrymen, the expulsion of the tyrant, and the utter

abolition of the regal dignity at Rome, (509 B. C.) which had subsisted for 244 years.

19. *Reflections on the Government and State of Rome during the period of the Kings.*—The whole structure of the constitution of the Romans under the monarchy has been by most authors erroneously attributed exclusively to the abilities of Romulus, a youth of eighteen, the leader of a troop of shepherds or banditti. This chimerical idea we owe to Dionysius of Halicarnassus. The truth is, the Roman government, like almost every other, was the gradual result of circumstances; the fruit of time, and of political emergency.

20. The constitution of the Roman senate has occasioned considerable research, and is not free from obscurity. It is probable that the kings had the sole right of naming the senators, that the consuls succeeded them in this right, and afterwards, when these magistrates found too much occupation from the frequent wars in which the state was engaged, that privilege devolved on the censors. The senators were at first always chosen from the body of the patricians; that is, out of those descended from the first *centum patres*, who are supposed to have been named by Romulus, but afterwards the plebeians acquired an equal title to that dignity. In the early periods of the republic, the authority of the senate was very extensive. No assembly of the people could be called together but by the senate's authority; nor were the *plebiscita*, or *decrees of the people*, of any weight till confirmed by a second decree of the senate. Hence the early constitution of the republic was rather aristocratical than democratical. From this extensive power of the senate, the first diminution was made, by the creation of the Tribunes of the people; and other retrenchments successively took place, till the people acquired at length the predominant power in the state. Yet the senate, even after every usurpation on their authority, continued to have in many points, a supremacy. They

regulated all matters regarding religion; they had the custody of the public treasure; they superintended the conduct of all magistrates; they gave audience to ambassadors, decided on the fate of vanquished nations, disposed of the governments of the provinces, and took cognizance, by appeal, in all crimes against the state. In great emergencies they appointed a Dictator, with absolute authority. Such were the acknowledged powers of the Roman senate through the whole period of the commonwealth.

21. At the period of the abolition of the regal government, the territory of the Romans was extremely limited. It is said to have been only forty miles in length and thirty in breadth. The only use they yet made of their victories was to naturalize the inhabitants of some of the conquered states, and so increase their population. By this wise policy they became a powerful state, though within a narrow territory; because their strength was always superior to their enterprises. In this manner they laid a solid foundation for the future extension of their empire.

22. In the accounts given by historians of the strength of the armies, both of the Romans in those early times, and of the neighbouring states their enemies, we have every reason to believe there is much exaggeration. The territories from which those armies were furnished, were incapable of supplying them.

23. In the continual wars in which the republic was engaged, the Romans were most commonly the aggressors. The causes of this seem to have been the ambition of the consuls to distinguish their short administration by some splendid enterprise, and the wish of the senate to give the people occupation, to prevent intestine disquiets.

24. The regal government subsisted 244 years, and during all that time only seven kings reigned, several of whom died a violent death, and the last of

them lived thirteen years after his expulsion. This statement is extraordinary, and is calculated to throw doubt on the authenticity of this period of the Roman history. It is allowed that, for the five first centuries after the building of Rome, there were no historians. The first Roman who undertook to write the history of his country was Fabius Pictor, who lived during the second Punic war (A. U. C. 535, and B.C. 218), to which period he brought down his history. Livy says that almost all the ancient records were destroyed by fire when Rome was taken by the Gauls, and therefore, with great candour, states that he does not warrant the authenticity of what he relates of those ancient times.

XXV.

ROME UNDER THE CONSULS.

1. THE regal government being abolished, it was agreed to commit the supreme authority to two magistrates, who should be annually elected by the people from the Patrician order. To these they gave the name of *Consules*; 'a modest title,' says Vertot, 'which gave to understand that they were rather the counsellors of the republic than its sovereigns; and that the only point they ought to have in view was its preservation and glory.' But, in fact, their authority differed scarcely in any thing from that of the kings. They had the supreme administration of justice, the disposal of the public money, the power of convoking the senate, and assembling the people, raising armies, naming all the officers, and the right of making peace, war, and alliance. The only difference was, that their authority was limited to a year. They wore the purple robe, they had the *sella curulis*, or ivory chair of state, and each of them was attended by twelve lictors, armed with the *fasces*, the symbols of their power of life and death.

2. The first consuls were Brutus and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia. Tarquin was at this time in Etruria, where he prevailed upon two of the most powerful cities, Veii and Tarquinii, to espouse his cause. He had likewise his partisans at Rome; and a plot was formed to open the gates to receive him. It was detected; and Brutus had the mortification to find his two sons, and the nephews of Collatinus, in the number of the conspirators. Brutus himself sat in judgment upon his sons, and condemned them to be beheaded in his presence; 'Exuit patrem ut consulem ageret; orbusque vivere, quam publicæ vindictæ deesse maluit.'* Such is the reflection of Valerius Maximus, but that of Livy is more natural: 'Quum inter omne tempus pater, vultusque et os ejus spectaculo esset, eminente animo patrio, inter publicæ pœnæ ministerium.'† Collatinus had not strength to imitate this example, and in his endeavour to avert the punishment of his nephews procured his own deposition and banishment.

3. Tarquin now determined on war; and at the head of the armies of Veii and Tarquinii, he marched against the Romans. He was opposed by the consuls Brutus aud Publius Valerius, who had been chosen in the room of Collatinus, and in the battle which ensued Brutus was killed. The contest was doubtful; but the Romans claimed the victory, and Valerius was the first Roman who enjoyed the splendid reward of a triumph; a higher honour was paid to the memory of Brutus, for whom the whole city went into mourning for ten months. Arrogant from his recent honours, the popularity of Valerius began to decline; when, with the view of recovering it, he proposed the law, termed from him the Valerian, which 'permitted any citizen who had been condemned to

* 'He sacrificed the feelings of a father to the obligations of chief magistrate, and preferred a childless old age to any failure of his duty to the state.'

† 'While all the time his looks betrayed the feelings of a father, the pure patriotism of his soul prevailed in the administration of justice.'

death by a magistrate, or even to banishment or scourging, to appeal to the people, and required their consent previously to the execution of the sentence.' This law gave the first blow to the aristocracy, in the constitution of the Roman republic, A.U.C. 244.—B.C. 509.

4. For thirteen years after the expulsion of Tarquin, the Romans were involved in continual wars on his account. Of these the most remarkable was that with the Etrurians under Porsena; a war fertile in exploits of romantic heroism.

5. Soon after this period began those domestic disorders, which continued long to embroil the republic. Great complaints had arisen among the poorer classes of the citizens, both on account of the inequality of property from the partial distribution of the conquered lands, which the higher ranks generally contrived to engross to themselves, and from the harsh policy by which it was in the power of creditors to reduce to a state of slavery their insolvent debtors. As there was no law which limited the rate of interest on borrowed money, the poor, when once reduced to the necessity of contracting even trifling debts, were left entirely at the mercy of their creditors. These grievances, felt in common by a large proportion of the citizens, excited much discontent, which, from complaints long disregarded, grew at length into a spirit of determined resistance. The wars required new levies, and the senate ordered the plebeians to arm in defence of the common liberties; but the plebeians positively refused to enrol their names, declaring that they knew no liberties to defend, unless the senate should put an end to their oppression, by decreeing at once an abolition of all the debts due by the poor to the rich. The emergency was critical, as the enemy was at the gates of Rome. The consuls found their authority of no avail; for the Valerian law had given any citizen condemned by them a right of appeal to the people. To evade the force of this law an extraordinary measure was ne-

cessary, and a Dictator was created for the first time; a magistrate who, for the period of six months, was invested with absolute and unlimited authority. The senate appointed one of the consuls, Clelius, to choose the dictator, which was always afterwards the form, and he named his colleague, Titus Lartius Flavius. Lartius, nominated to this high office, armed the twenty-four lictors with axes, summoned the whole people to the Comitia, and calling over the names, under the penalty of death to any citizen who should dare to murmur, enrolled all such as he judged most fit for the service of their country. He was successful against the enemy, and, returning to Rome, abdicated his authority. This expedient became henceforward a frequent and certain resource in all seasons of public danger. In the following year Aulus Posthumus was chosen dictator, who gained an important victory, in which the two sons of Tarquin, Sextus and Titus, were slain. This put an end to all his prospects. He retired to Cumæ, in Campania, where he died at the age of ninety, A.U.C. 257.

6. The death of Tarquin removed one check against the tyranny of the higher over the lower orders; for the latter had hitherto kept alive a salutary apprehension, that, in case of extreme oppression, they would be under the necessity of calling back their king. When this fear was at an end, the domineering spirit of the patricians, exceeding every bound both of good policy and humanity, drove the people at length to deeds of mutiny and rebellion. An alarm from the enemy gave full weight to their power, and made the chief magistrates of the state solemnly engage their honour to procure a redress of their grievances, as soon as the public danger was at an end. The promise, either from a failure of will or of power, was not fulfilled, and this violation of faith drove the people at length to extremities. Bound by their military oath not to desert their standards, they carried them along with them; and

the whole army, in military array, under Sicinius Bellutus, withdrew from Rome, and deliberately encamped on the Mons Sacer, at three miles distance from the city; and here they were soon joined by the greatest part of the people. This resolute procedure had its desired effect. The senate deputed ten persons, the most respectable of their order, with plenary powers; and these, seeing no medium of compromise, granted to the people all their demands. The debts were solemnly abolished; and for the security of their privileges in future, they were allowed the right of choosing magistrates of their own order, who should have the power of opposing with effect every measure which they should judge prejudicial to their interests. These were the Tribunes of the people (so called from having been first selected from among the *tribuni militum* of the different legions), chosen annually; at first five in number, and afterwards increased to ten. Without guards or tribunal, and having no seat in the senate-house, they had yet the power, by a single *veto*, to suspend or annul the decrees of the senate and the sentences of the consuls. Their persons were declared sacred, but their authority was confined to the bounds of the city and a mile beyond the walls. The tribunes demanded and obtained two magistrates to assist them in their office; these were termed Ædiles, from the charge committed to them of the buildings of the city; and afterwards they had likewise the care of the games, spectacles, and other matters of police, within the city.

7. From this era (260 years from the foundation of Rome, and seventeen years after the abolition of the regal government), we date the commencement of the popular constitution of the Roman republic; a change operated by the unwise policy of the patricians themselves, who, by yielding to just complaints, and humanely redressing flagrant abuses, might have easily anticipated every ground of dissatisfaction. The first wish of the people was not

power, but relief from tyranny and oppression; and had this been readily granted them, if not by abolishing the debts, at least by repressing enormous usury, and putting an end to the inhuman right of corporal punishment and the bondage of debtors, the people would have cheerfully returned to order and submission, and the Roman constitution have long remained what we have seen it was at the commencement of the consular government, aristocratical. But a torrent imprudently resisted will, in time, acquire that impetuous force which carries every thing before it. The plebeians having now obtained magistrates of their own order with those high powers, we shall see it become the main object with these magistrates to increase their authority by continual demands and bold encroachments. The people regarding them as the champions of their rights, and delighted to find themselves gradually approaching to an equality with the higher order; and, no longer bounding their desires to ease and security, are soon equally influenced by ambition as their superiors. While this people, borne down by injustice and oppression, seek no more than the redress of real grievances, and a share of ease and happiness as the members of a free state, we applaud their spirited exertions, and execrate that arbitrary and inhuman principle which prompted the higher order to treat them as slaves or inferior beings. But when we behold this people compassing at length the end they wished for—attaining ease and security, nay power, which at first they had neither sought nor expected; when we see them, after this, increasing in their demands, assuming that arrogance they justly blamed in their superiors, goaded on by the ambition of their leaders to aim at tyrannizing in their turn; we view with proper discrimination the love of liberty and its extreme, licentiousness; and treat with just detestation the authors of those pernicious measures which embroiled the state in endless faction, and paved the

way for the total loss of that liberty, of which this deluded people knew not the value when they actually possessed it.

XXVI.

THE LAW OF VOLERO.

1. The disorders of the commonwealth, appeased by the creation of the Tribunes, were but for a very short time suspended. It was necessary that the popular magistrates should make an experiment of their powers. In an assembly of the people, one of the consuls, interrupted by a tribune, rashly said, that had the tribunes convoked the assembly, he would not have interrupted them, and therefore *they* ought not to be interrupted. This was a concession on the part of the consuls, that the tribunes had the power of assembling the Comitia, a power which they themselves had never dreamt of, but which from that moment they assumed as their acknowledged right. It was a consequence of this right, that the affairs of the commonwealth should be agitated in those meetings, equally as in the assemblies held in virtue of a consular summons, or senatorial decree, and thus there were, in a manner, two distinct legislative powers established in the republic.

2. The trial of Coriolanus for inconsiderately proposing the abolition of the Tribunate, an offence interpreted to be treason against the state, threw an additional weight into the scale of the people. The proposal of an Agrarian law, for the division of the lands acquired by recent conquests, resumed at intervals, though never carried into execution, inflamed the passions of the rival orders.

3. Publius Volero, formerly a centurion, and a man distinguished for his military services, had, in the new levies, been ranked as a common soldier. Complaining of this unmerited degradation, he re-

fused his services in that capacity: and the consuls having condemned him to corporal punishment, he appealed from their sentence to the people. The contest lasted till the annual term of elections, when Volero himself was chosen a tribune of the people. He had an ample revenge, by procuring the enactment of a most important law. The Comitia, by centuries and by curiæ, could not be called but in virtue of a decree of the senate, after consulting the auspices; and in those comitia the tribunes had hitherto been elected, and the most important public affairs discussed. It was decreed by the law of Volero, that the election of the tribunes should be made, and all questions in which the affairs of *the people* were agitated, should henceforward be discussed in the comitia held by tribes, which were unfettered by any of those restraints. The senate opposed the passing of a law so fatal to their power, but their opposition was ineffectual. From this period, the supreme authority in the Roman republic may be considered as having passed completely from the higher order into the hands of the people. The Roman constitution was now plainly a democracy, 471 B.C.

XXVII.

THE DECEMVIRATE.

1. The Romans had, till this period, no body of civil laws. Under the regal government the kings alone administered justice; the consuls succeeded them in this high prerogative; and thus possessed without control the absolute command of the fortunes and civil rights of all the citizens. To remedy this great defect, Terentillus, a tribune, proposed the nomination of ten commissioners, to frame and digest a code of laws for the explanation and security of the rights of all orders of the state. A measure so equitable ought to have met with no

opposition. It was, however, strenuously though ineffectually opposed by the patricians, who, by a fruitless contest, only exposed their own weakness. The ten commissioners, or *decemviri*, were chosen; but the election being made in the Comitia by centuries, the consul Appius Claudius, and his colleague Titus Genacius, were at the head of this important commission, and the other eight were also senators and consular persons. The laws were framed, those celebrated statutes known by the name of the Twelve Tables, which are the basis of the great structure of the Roman jurisprudence, 451 B.C.

2. An acquaintance with these ancient laws is therefore of importance. Even in the most flourishing times of the republic, they continued to be of the highest authority. They have the encomium of Cicero himself; and we learn from him, that to commit these laws to memory was an essential part of a liberal education. From the twelve tables the jurisconsulti composed a system of judicial forms, for the regulation of the different tribunals. The number of the laws was likewise from time to time increased by the *Senatusconsulta* and *Plebiscita*; the first enacted by the sole authority of the senate, and the latter by the people without the consent of the senate.

3. The decemvirs were invested with all the powers of government, for the consulate and all other authority but their own had ceased on their creation. Each decemvir by turn presided for a day, and had the sovereign authority, with its insignia, the fasces. The nine others officiated solely as judges in the determination of law-suits, and the correction of abuses. An abuse, however, of the most flagrant nature, committed by the chief of their own number, was destined speedily to bring their office to its termination.

4. Appius Claudius, inflamed by lawless passion for the young Virginia, the betrothed spouse of Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, employed a

profligate dependant to claim the maiden as his own property, on the false pretence of her being the daughter of one of his female slaves. The claim was made to the decemvir himself in judgment, who pronounced an infamous decree, which tore from her family this helpless victim, and put her into the hands of his own minion. Her father Virginius, to save the honour of his child, plunged a dagger into her breast; and the people, witnesses of this shocking scene, would have massacred Appius on the spot, had he not found means to escape amidst the tumult. Their vengeance, however, was satiated by the instant abolition of this hated magistracy, and by the death of Appius, who chose by his own hand to prevent the stroke of the executioner. His colleague Oppius, the chief abettor of his crimes, died in the same manner, and the rest went into voluntary exile, while their goods were forfeited to the public use. The decemvirate had subsisted for three years. The consuls were now restored, together with the tribunes, which reinstated the people at once to all their rights and privileges, 449 B. C.

XXVIII.

INCREASE OF THE POPULAR POWER.

1. The scale of the people was daily acquiring weight, at the expense of that of the highest order. Two barriers, however, still separated the patricians and plebeians; the one, a law which prevented their intermarriage, and the other, the constitutional limitation of all the higher offices to the order of the patricians. It was now only necessary to remove these restraints, to bring the patricians and plebeians on a footing of perfect equality. The first, after a long but fruitless contest, was at length agreed to by the senate; and this concession had its usual effect of stimulating the people to inflexible perseverance in their struggle for the latter. On an emer-

gence of war, the customary device was practised, of refusing to enter the rolls, unless upon the immediate enactment of a law, which should admit their capacity of holding all the offices of the republic. The senate sought a palliative, by the creation of six military tribunes in lieu of the consuls, three of whom should be patricians, and three plebeians. This measure satisfied the people for a time: the consuls, however, were soon restored.

2. The disorders of the republic, and frequent wars, had interrupted the regular survey or census of the citizens, for a great many years. This was remedied by the creation of a new magistracy. Two officers, under the title of Censors, were appointed, (437 B. C.) whose duty was not only to make the *census* every five years, but to inspect the morals and regulate the duties of all the citizens; in virtue of this power they kept in dependence both the senate and people. The censorship, from these extensive powers, was accounted the most honourable office of the commonwealth, and was exercised, in the latter times of the republic, only by consular persons, and afterwards annexed to the supreme function of the emperors.

3. The dissensions between the orders continued with little variation either in their causes or effects. The people generally, as the last resource, refused to enrol themselves, till overawed by the supreme authority of a dictator. To obviate the frequent necessity of this measure, which enforced at best an unwilling and compelled obedience, the senate had recourse to a wise expedient; this was to give a regular pay to the troops. To defray this expense, a moderate tax was imposed in proportion to the fortunes of the citizens. From this period the Roman system of war assumed a new aspect. The senate always found soldiers at command; the army was under its control; the enterprises of the republic were more extensive, and its successes more signal and important. Veii, the proud rival of Rome, and

its equal in extent and population, was taken by Camillus, after a siege of ten years, A. U. C. 359.—B. C. 394. The art of war was improved, as it now became a profession, instead of an occasional occupation. The Romans were, from this circumstance, an overmatch for all their neighbours. Their dominion, hitherto confined to the territory of a few miles, was now rapidly extended. It was impossible but the detached states of Italy must have given way before a people always in arms, and who, by a perseverance alike resolute and judicious, were equal to every attempt in which they engaged.

4. The taking of Veii was succeeded by a war with the Gauls. This formidable people, a branch of the great nation of the Celtæ, had opened to themselves a passage through the Alps at four different periods, and had been at this time established in the country between those mountains and the Appennines, for about 200 years. Under the command of Brennus, they laid siege to the Etruscan Clusium; and this people, of no warlike turn themselves, solicited the aid of the Romans. The circumstances recorded of this war with the Gauls throw over it a cloud of fable and romance. The formidable power of Rome is said to have been in a single campaign so utterly exhausted, that the Gauls entered the city without resistance, and burnt it to the ground, 385 B. C. Though thus overpowered, the Romans, in a single engagement, retrieve all their losses, and in one day's time there is not a Gaul left remaining within the Roman territory.

To the burning of the city by the Gauls, the Roman writers attribute the loss of all the records and monuments of their early history.

5. It is singular, that most of the Roman revolutions should have owed their origin to women. From this cause we have seen spring the abolition of the regal office and the decemvirate. From this cause arose the change of the constitution, by which the plebeians became capable of holding the highest

offices of the commonwealth. The younger daughter of Fabius Ambustus, married to a plebeian, envious of the honours of her elder sister, the wife of a patrician, stimulated her father to rouse the lower order to a resolute purpose of asserting their equal right with the patricians to all the offices and dignities of the state. After much turbulence and contest, the final issue was the admission of the plebeians, first to the consulate, and afterwards to the censorship, the prætorship, and priesthood (A. U. C. 454, and B.C. 300); a change beneficial in the main, as consolidating the strength of the republic, and cutting off the principal source of intestine disorder. The factions of the state had hitherto confined the growth of its power, its splendour, and prosperity; for no state can at once be prosperous and anarchical. We shall now mark the rapid elevation of the Roman name and empire.

XXIX.

CONQUEST OF ITALY BY THE ROMANS.

1. THE war with the Samnites now began, and was of long continuance; but its successful termination was speedily followed by the reduction of all the states of Italy. In the course of this important war, the Tarentines, the allies of the Samnites, sought the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, one of the greatest generals of his age. Pyrrhus landed in Italy with 30,000 men, and a train of elephants, 280 B.C. He was at first successful; the elephants in his army were a novel sight to the Romans, and gave him a great advantage, but no longer than until a short experience reconciled the Romans to this new mode of war; and every campaign proved more and more unsuccessful. Sensible at length of the difficulties of his enterprise, and dreading a fatal issue, he embraced an invitation from the Sicilians to aid them in a war with Carthage. On this pretext,

which at least was not dishonourable, Pyrrhus withdrew his troops from Italy. In this interval the Romans reduced the Samnites, the Tarentines, and the other allied states, to extremity. Pyrrhus returned after an absence of two years, and made a last effort near Beneventum. He was totally defeated, lost 26,000 men, and, abandoning at once all farther views to Italy, returned with precipitation to his own dominions, 274 B.C. The hostile states submitted to the victorious power; and Rome, 480 years from the foundation of the city, was now mistress of all Italy.

2. The policy observed by the Romans, with respect to the conquered nations, was wise and judicious. They removed to Rome all the leading men of the principal conquered cities, admitting these into the ancient urban and rustic tribes, and thus soothing the pride of the vanquished, by giving them an apparent share in their own domestic government; while, in arranging the constitution of the cities, they filled their magistracies with illustrious Romans, whose abilities and influence were fitted to maintain those new provinces in allegiance to the Roman government.

3. Sicily had long been considered as the granary of Italy. The Carthaginians at this time possessed very considerable settlements in the island, and were ambitious of acquiring its entire dominion. An obvious policy led the Romans to dispute with them this important acquisition, and gave rise to the Punic wars. This leads, by a natural connexion, to a short view of the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

XXX.

HISTORY OF CARTHAGE.

1. CARTHAGE, according to the most probable accounts, was founded by a colony of Tyrians, about seventy years before the building of Rome. The

colony had the same language, the same or nearly similar laws and constitution, the same national character, with the parent state. The city of Carthage was, at the period of the Punic wars, one of the most splendid in the universe, containing 700,000 inhabitants, and had under its dominion 300 of the smaller cities of Africa bordering on the Mediterranean sea.

2. The constitution of the republic is celebrated by Aristotle as one of the most perfect of the governments of antiquity; but we know little more than its general nature from ancient writers. Two magistrates, named *Suffetes*, or judges, annually chosen from the most distinguished families, seem to have possessed powers akin to those of the Roman consuls; as did the Carthaginian senate to that of the senate of Rome; with this remarkable difference, that, in the former, unanimity of opinion was requisite in all measures of importance. A divided senate transmitted the business to the assembly of the people; a tribunal of 104 judges took cognizance of military operations and of the conduct of their generals. A superior council of five seems to have controlled the decisions of the larger tribunal. Two peculiarities of the Carthaginian policy have been censured by Aristotle. One was, that the same person might hold several employments or offices in the state; the other, that the poor were debarred from all offices of trust or importance. But the former of these is frequently both expedient and necessary, and the latter seems agreeable to the soundest policy; for in offices of trust poverty offers too powerful an incitement to deviation from duty.

3. The first settlements made by the Carthaginians were entirely in the way of commerce. Trading to the coast of Spain for gold, they built Carthagena and Gades; and coasting along the western shore of Africa, they had establishments for the same purpose as far as the 25th degree of N. latitude. The *Periplus* of Hanno affords a proof of ardent enterprise and

policy. Desirous of extending a limited territory, they armed against the Mauritanians, Numidians, and all the neighbouring nations; employing mercenary troops, which they levied, not only in Africa, but in Spain, the Gauls, and Greece.

4. The annals of the Carthaginian state are but little known till their wars with the Romans. The first of their wars mentioned in history is that with the Greek colonies of Sicily. Darius courted their alliance when he meditated the conquest of Greece, and Xerxes renewed that treaty when he followed out the designs of his father.

XXXI.

HISTORY OF SICILY.

1. The early periods of the history of Sicily are no less unknown than those of Carthage. The Phœnicians had sent colonies thither before the Trojan war. The Greeks, in after times, made considerable settlements in the island. The Corinthians founded Syracuse, which became the most illustrious of the Greek cities of Sicily; and from Syracuse arose afterwards Agrigentum, Acra, Casmene, Camarene, and several other flourishing towns.

2. The government of Syracuse was monarchical, and might long have remained so, had all its sovereigns inherited the abilities and virtues of Gelon, its first monarch. But his successors, exercising the worst of tyranny, compelled their subjects at length to abolish the regal government; and their example was speedily followed by all the Grecian states of Sicily.

3. The monarchy of Syracuse, however, was revived about sixty years after in the person of Dionysius, a man of obscure origin, but of signal ability. Twice expelled for a tyrannical exercise of dominion, he as often found means to overpower his enemies, and re-establish himself in the throne. At his death, the crown passed, without opposition, to

his son, Dionysius the Younger, a weak and capricious tyrant, whom his subjects, judging unworthy to reign, dethroned and banished, 357 B.C. The crown was conferred on Dion, his brother-in-law: but this prince, whose amiable character rendered him the delight of his people, after a short reign, fell a victim to treason. Aided by the distractions of Syracuse consequent on this event, Dionysius remounted the throne ten years after his expulsion; but his tyrannical disposition, heightened by his misfortunes, became at length so intolerable, that he was expelled a second time, and banished to Corinth, where he ended his days in poverty and obscurity. The author of this revolution was the illustrious Timoleon, to whose abilities and virtues his country owed equally its liberty and its subsequent happiness and prosperity, 343 B.C. The Syracusians had not virtue enough to retain their recovered freedom. Agathocles, a man of splendid talents, seized the supreme power. Besieged by the Carthaginians in Syracuse, he adopted the bold resolution of carrying the war into Africa, and appearing before the walls of Carthage, defeated their army, and nearly subverted their empire. But suffering a severe reverse of fortune, he meanly abandoned his army to the mercy of the enemy, and returned to Sicily, where shortly after he died from the effect of poison.

4. On the death of Agathocles, Syracuse fell into confusion; and the Carthaginians, intent on the acquisition of Sicily, now invested the city with a large fleet and an army of 50,000 men. The Syracusians, unable to resist this force, invited to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who, as we have before seen, withdrew his troops from Italy for this purpose. Pyrrhus was for some time successful, but he was at length overcome by the Carthaginians, and forced to evacuate Sicily. This war involved Carthage in hostilities with Rome, which immediately led to the first Punic war, and ultimately caused her ruin.

THE signal opposition of national character between the Romans and Carthaginians may be easily accounted for, when we attend to the effects of a commercial life on the genius and manners of a nation. The vices of a commercial people are considered to be selfishness, cunning, avarice, with an absence of every heroic and patriotic virtue.* The favourable effects of commerce are, industry, frugality, respect to mutual contracts and obligations, general courtesy of manners, the cultivation of science, and its application to improvement in the useful arts. Attending to these consequences of the prevalence of the commercial spirit, we shall see the principal features of the Carthaginian character opposed to the Roman.

XXXII.

THE PUNIC WARS.

1. THE triumph which the Romans had obtained over Pyrrhus seemed to give assurance of success in any enterprise in which they should engage. The Mamertines, a people of Campania, who had been in the pay of Agathocles, and who were desirous of settling in Sicily, obtained aid from the Romans in an unjustifiable attempt which they made to seize Messina, a Sicilian town allied to Syracuse. The Syracusans, at first assisted by the Carthaginians, opposed this invasion; but their united forces were defeated by the Romans. The Syracusans having never felt the power of the Roman arms, and being more alarmed by the ambitious encroachments of the Carthaginians on Sicily, soon repented of this rash alliance, and joined the Romans in the purpose of expelling the Carthaginians entirely from the island.

* This sentiment may be very safely controverted. Industry and commerce are the only honest ways in which a nation can acquire wealth. The wealth acquired by war, however sanctioned, is nothing but plunder, obtained by robbery and murder on a large scale.

In fact, the Sicilians seemed to have had only the desperate choice of final submission either to Rome or Carthage. They chose the former, as the alternative least dishonourable: the Romans had ever been their friends, the Carthaginians their enemies.

2. Agrigentum, possessed by the Carthaginians, was taken, after a long siege, by the joint forces of Rome and Syracuse. The Romans, encouraged by this success, and conscious of the great advantage which the enemy derived from their superiority at sea, determined to have a fleet. A Carthaginian ship of war, that was stranded on the coast of Italy, is said to have served as a model, and by a wonderful effort of industry, the Romans equipped in a few weeks 120 similar vessels—the first fleet they ever had. Inferior to their enemy in the art of manœuvring their vessels, they invented machines for grappling, and bringing a sea-fight to resemble a land-fight. By this means the consul Dicilius gained a complete victory over the fleet of the Carthaginians. Carthage at this time was the greatest maritime power in the world, 260 B.C. These successes were followed by the reduction of Corsica and Sardinia. In a second naval engagement, the Romans took from the Carthaginians sixty of their ships of war, and now resolutely prepared for the invasion of Africa. The consul Regulus commanded the expedition. He advanced to the gates of Carthage; and such was the general consternation, that the enemy proposed a capitulation. Inspirited, however, by a timely aid of Greek troops under Xantippus, the Carthaginians made a desperate effort, and defeating the Roman army, made Regulus their prisoner. But repeatedly defeated in Sicily, they were at length seriously desirous of a peace; and the Roman general was sent with their ambassadors to Rome to aid the negotiation, under a solemn oath to return to Carthage as a prisoner, should the treaty fail. It was rejected at the urgent desire of Regulus himself,

who thus sacrificed his life to what he judged the interest of his country.*

3. The war still continued, and Lilybœum, the strongest of the Sicilian towns belonging to Carthage, was taken after a siege of nine years. After some alternate successes, two naval battles won by the Romans terminated the war; and Carthage at last obtained a peace, on the humiliating terms of abandoning to the Romans all her possessions in Sicily, the payment of 3,200 talents of silver, the restitution of all prisoners without ransom, and a solemn engagement never to make war against Syracuse or her allies. The island of Sicily was now declared a Roman province, with the exception of Syracuse, which still maintained her independent government (A. U. C. 511, and B. C. 241). Thus terminated the first Punic war, after a contest of twenty-four years. The temple of Janus was now shut, an event which had not happened since the reign of Numa, being a period of nearly 500 years.

4. The peace between Rome and Carthage was of twenty-three years' duration. The latter power was recruiting her strength, and meditated to revenge her losses and disgrace. The second Punic war began on the part of the Carthaginians, who besieged Saguntum, a city of Spain in alliance with the Romans. The young Hannibal took Saguntum, after a siege of seven months; the desperate inhabitants setting fire to the town, and perishing amidst the flames (B.C. 219). Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy. He provided against every difficulty, gained to his interest a part of the Gallic tribes, passed the Pyrenees, and finally the Alps,† in a toilsome march

* Some of the ancient authors have asserted that Regulus was put to death in a cruel manner by the Carthaginians, but the truth of this is now very much doubted.

† The passage of Hannibal over the Alps has been illustrated, in a most learned and ingenious essay, by Mr. Whittaker (the celebrated historian of Manchester, and vindicator of Queen Mary), who has, with great acuteness, traced every step of the Carthaginian general, from his crossing the Rhone to his final arrival in Italy.

of five months and a half from his leaving Carthagena; and arrived in Italy with 20,000 foot and 6,000 horse.

5. In the first engagement the Romans were defeated, and they lost two other important battles at Trebia and the lake Thrasymenus. In the latter of these the consul Flaminius was killed, and his army cut to pieces. Hannibal advanced to Cannæ in Apulia; and the Romans there opposing him with their whole force, a memorable defeat ensued, in which 40,000 were left dead upon the field, and amongst these the consul Æmilius, and almost the whole body of the Roman knights. Had Hannibal taken advantage of this great victory, by instantly attacking Rome, the fate of the republic was inevitable; but he deliberated, and the occasion was lost. The Romans concentrated all their strength; even the slaves armed in the common cause, and victory once more attended the standards of the republic. Philip, king of Macedon, joined his forces to the Carthaginians, but, defeated by Levinus, speedily withdrew his assistance. Hannibal retreated before the brave Marcellus. Syracuse had now taken part with Carthage, and thus paved the way for the loss of her own liberty. Marcellus besieged the city, which was long defended by the inventive genius of Archimedes, but taken in the third year by escalade in the night. This event put an end to the kingdom of Syracuse, which now became a part of the Roman province of Sicily (A.U.C. 542, B.C. 212).

6. While the war in Italy was prosperously conducted by the great Fabius, who, by constantly avoiding a general engagement, found the true method of weakening his enemy, the younger Scipio accomplished the entire reduction of Spain. Asdrubal was sent into Italy to the aid of his brother Hannibal, but was defeated by the consul Claudius Nero, and slain in battle. This fatal defeat destroyed the prospects of Hannibal, and encouraged the efforts of the Romans. Scipio, triumphant in

Spain, now passed over into Africa, and carried havoc and devastation to the gates of Carthage. Alarmed for the fate of their empire, the Carthaginians hastily recalled Hannibal from Italy, after having retained possession of the fairest portions of it for seventeen years. The battle of Zama decided the fate of the war; Hannibal was defeated for the first time—with difficulty escaped from the field, and arriving at Carthage brought the account of the total destruction of his army. The Carthaginians entreated a peace, which the Romans gave on these conditions: that the Carthaginians should abandon Spain, Sicily, and all the islands lying between Italy and Africa; surrender all their prisoners, give up the whole of their fleet except ten galleys, pay within the period of fifty years 10,000 talents, and, in future, undertake no war without the consent of the Romans (A.U.C. 552, B.C. 202). Thus ended the second Punic war, so glorious to Rome and honourable to Scipio, to whom his country decreed a triumph and the surname of Africanus.

7. Every thing now concurred to swell the pride of the conquerors and to extend their dominion; and their arms for the first time shewed themselves in Greece. A war with Philip II., of Macedon, was undertaken, and terminated by his defeat; and his son Demetrius was sent to Rome as a hostage for the payment of a heavy tribute imposed on the vanquished (B.C. 198). This was soon followed by a war with Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, who had offended them by opposing their arms in Greece, and affording an asylum to Hannibal, who had been forced by a faction at Carthage to seek refuge at his court. Antiochus was defeated at Thermopylæ, and pursued into Syria; he was again defeated at Magnesia, and obliged to sue for peace. The war was terminated by his ceding to the Romans the whole of the Lesser Asia as far as Mount Taurus, the half of his ships, and agreeing to pay 15,000 talents towards the expenses of the war (B.C. 191).

8. Philip of Macedon, having put to death his son Demetrius, who had concluded a treaty of amity with the Romans, on the false representation of his elder son Perseus, on discovering his error was tormented by remorse, and died a short time after. He was succeeded by Perseus, who, among the first of his acts, formed an alliance with several of the Grecian states to make war against the Romans. This war terminated in the total defeat of Perseus, in his being carried captive to Rome to adorn the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, and in the reduction of Macedon into a Roman province (B.C. 169). But these splendid conquests, while they enlarged the empire, were fatal to its virtues, and subversive of the pure and venerable simplicity of ancient times.

9. The third Punic war began A.U.C. 605, B.C. 149, and ended in the ruin of Carthage. An unsuccessful war with Masinissa, king of Numidia, had reduced the Carthaginians to great weakness, and the Romans meanly laid hold of that opportunity to invade Africa, and to destroy their once formidable rival. Conscious of their utter inability to resist this formidable power, the Carthaginians offered every submission, and consented even to acknowledge themselves the subjects of Rome. The senate promised them every degree of favour on condition that they should perform what was required of them, and demanded 300 hostages of high rank for the strict performance of every stipulation. The hostages were given; a Roman army was landed in Africa, and the first condition required was, that they should deliver up all their arms and military stores—which having been submitted to with reluctance, the Roman consul next demanded that the population should abandon the city, and that Carthage itself should be razed to its foundation. Despair gave courage to this miserable people, and they determined to die in the defence of their native city. But the noble effort was in vain. Carthage was ken by storm, its inhabitants massacred, and the

city burnt to the ground (A.U.C. 607, B.C. 146). Thus a city which had contained 700,000 inhabitants, and had flourished for 1,000 years, sank, never again to rise with independence.

10. The same year was signalized by the destruction of Corinth, and the entire reduction of Greece into a Roman province, under the name of Achaia.* This was the era of the dawn of luxury and taste at Rome, the natural fruit of foreign wealth, and an acquaintance with foreign manners. In the unequal distribution of this imported wealth, the vices to which it gave rise, the corruption and venality of which it became the instrument, we see the remoter causes of those fatal disorders to which the republic owed its dissolution.

XXXIII.

THE GRACCHI AND THE CORRUPTION OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. THE Romans had now completed the destruction of the Carthaginian empire, and added to their dominions, Spain, Sicily, Macedonia, Greece, and a large portion of Asia; together with the Lesser Asia, which was left to them by the last will of Attalus, king of Pergamus. These extensive conquests were, in a moral point of view, much more prejudicial than advantageous; their simple manners became relaxed, and Asiatic wealth and luxury proved destructive to Roman virtue. We are no more to look for the noble qualities that adorned the golden ages of the republic, but to trace the progress of corruption and of violence.

2. At this period arose Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, two noble youths, whose zeal to reform the

* Corinth was taken by L. Mummius. Its pictures, statues, and treasures, were shipped for Rome; all the grown men were put to death, the women and children sold for slaves, and the city itself burned. A similar fate befell Thebes and Chalcis in Eubœa.

growing corruptions of the state precipitated them at length into measures destructive of all government and social order. Tiberius, the elder of the brothers, urged the people to assert by force the revival of an ancient statute, the Licinian law, for limiting property in land, and thus abridging the overgrown estates of the patricians. A tumult was the consequence, in which Tiberius and 300 of his friends were killed in the forum (B. C. 132). This fatal example did not deter his brother, Caius Gracchus, from pursuing some years after a similar career of zeal or of ambition. After some successful experiments of his power, while in the office of tribune, he directed his scrutiny into the corruptions of the senate, and prevailed in depriving that body of its constitutional control over all the inferior magistrates of the state. Employing, like his brother, the dangerous engine of tumultuary force, he fell a victim to it himself, with 3,000 of his partisans, who were slaughtered in the streets of Rome. The tumults attending the sedition of the Gracchi were the prelude to those civil disorders which now followed in quick succession to the end of the commonwealth.

3. The circumstances attending the war with Jugurtha gave decisive proof of the corruption of the Roman manners. Micipsa, son of Masinissa, king of Numidia, when dying, left his kingdom to his sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, and to his nephew Jugurtha. The latter sought to usurp the crown by destroying his cousins. He murdered the elder of the brothers; and the younger applying for aid to Rome, Jugurtha was summoned to appear before the senate, whom he succeeded in bribing to a great extent, and they declared him innocent of all culpable act or design, and decreed to him the sovereignty of half the kingdom. This operated only as an incentive to his criminal ambition. He declared open war against his cousin, besieged him in his capital of Cirta, and finally put him to death. To avert a threatened war, Jugurtha went in person

to Rome, pleaded his own cause in the senate, and once more by bribery secured his acquittal from all charge of criminality. A perseverance, however, in a similar train of conduct finally drew on him the vengeance of the Romans; and being betrayed into their hands by his own father-in-law, Bocchus, king of Mauritania, he was brought in chains to Rome to grace the triumph of the consul Marius, confined to a dungeon, and starved to death (A. U. C. 651, B. C. 103).

4. The ambition of the allied states of Italy to attain the rights of citizenship produced the Social war, which ended in a concession of those rights to such of the confederates as should return peaceably to their allegiance. This war with the allies was a prelude to that which followed between Rome and her own citizens. Sylla and Marius, rivals, and thence enemies, were at this time the leaders of the republic. Sylla, commanding in a war against Mithridates, was superseded, and recalled from Asia. He refused to obey the mandate; and found his army well disposed to support him. 'Let us march to Rome,' said they, with one voice; 'lead us on to avenge the cause of oppressed liberty.' Sylla accordingly led them on, and they entered Rome sword in hand; Marius and his partisans fled with precipitation from the city, and Sylla ruled for a while triumphant. But the faction of his rival soon recovered strength. Marius returning to Italy, and joining his forces to those of Cinna, his zealous partisan, laid siege to Rome; and, while Sylla was engaged in the Mithridatic war, compelled the city to absolute submission. After a horrible massacre of all whom they esteemed their enemies, Marius and Cinna proclaimed themselves consuls, without the formality of an election; but Marius, in the seventieth year of his age, died a few days after in a fit of debauch (B. C. 87).

5. After having victoriously terminated the Mithridatic war, Sylla returned to Italy in triumph, and,

joined by Cethegus, Verres, and the young Pompey, gave battle to the party of his enemies, and entirely defeated them. His entry into Rome was signalized by a dreadful massacre, and a proscription, which had for its object the extermination of every enemy whom he had in Italy.* Elected dictator for an unlimited period, he was now without a rival in authority, and absolute master of the government, which, of course, was substantially no longer a republic. In the exercise of his dominion, he deserved more praise than in the means of acquiring it. He restored the senate to its judicial authority, regulated the election to all the important offices of state, and enacted many excellent laws against oppression, and the abuse of power. Finally, he gave demonstration, if not of a pure conscience, at least of a magnanimous intrepidity of character, by voluntarily resigning all command, retiring to the condition of a private citizen, and offering publicly to give an account of his conduct. He died within a short time after his resignation:—a man certainly of great strength of mind, and who had some of the qualities of an heroic character; but he lived in evil times, when it was impossible at once to be great and to be virtuous (B. C. 75).

6. The death of Sylla renewed the civil war. Lepidus, a man of mean abilities, aspired to succeed him in power: and Pompey, with superior talents, cherished the same ambition. While the latter was employed in the final reduction of Mithridates and the revolted provinces of Asia, the conspiracy of Catiline threatened the entire destruction of Rome. It was extinguished by the provident zeal and active patriotism of the consul Cicero; and Catiline himself, with his chief accomplices, were attacked in the field, and defeated by Antonius. The traitor made a desperate defence, and died a better death than his crimes had merited.

* This civil war cost the lives of 33 consuls, 7 prætors, 60 ædiles, 200 senators, and 150,000 Roman citizens; and thousands were stripped of their property and reduced to poverty.

7. Julius Cæsar now rose into public notice. Sylla, who was an excellent judge of human nature, dreaded his abilities and ambition, and had numbered him among the proscribed. 'There is many a Marius,' said he, 'in the person of that young man.' He had learned prudence from the danger of his situation, and tacitly courted popularity, without that show of enterprise which gives alarm to a rival. While Pompey and Crassus contended for the command of the republic, Cæsar, who knew that by attaching himself to either rival he infallibly made the other his enemy, shewed the reach of his talents by reconciling them, and thus acquiring the friendship of both. From favour to their mutual friend, they agreed to a partition of power; and thus was formed the first Triumvirate. Cæsar was elected consul. He increased his popularity by a division of lands among the poorer citizens, and strengthened his interest with Pompey, by giving him his daughter in marriage. He had the command of four legions, and the government of Transalpine Gaul and Illyria.

8. The military glory of the republic, and the reputation of Cæsar, were nobly sustained in Gaul. In the first year of his government he subdued the Helvetii, who, leaving their own country, had attempted to settle themselves in the better regions of the Roman province. He totally defeated the Germans under Ariovistus, who had attempted a similar invasion. The Belgæ, the Nervii, the Celtic Gauls, the Suevi, Menapii, and other warlike nations, were all successively brought under subjection. In the fourth year of his government, he transported his army into Britain. Landing at Deal, he was opposed by the natives with equal courage and military skill. He gained, however, several advantages, and binding the Britons to submission, withdrew, on the approach of winter, into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a greater force, and prosecuting his victories, reduced a considerable portion of the island under the Roman dominion (B.C. 54).

But the pressure of affairs in Italy suspended for a time the progress of the Roman arms in Britain.

9. Cæsar dreaded the abilities of Cicero, who had opposed him in his views of ambition. By the machinations of his partisans, while himself absent in Gaul, he procured the banishment of Cicero, and the confiscation of his estates, on the pretence of illegal measures pursued in the suppression of the conspiracy of Catiline. During an exile of sixteen months in Greece, Cicero gave way to a despondency of mind utterly unworthy of the philosopher. Pompey had abandoned him, and this ungrateful desertion bore most heavily upon his mind: but Pompey himself, in the wane of his reputation, soon became desirous to prop his own sinking fortunes by the abilities of Cicero, and eagerly promoted his recall from exile. The death of Crassus, in an expedition against the Parthians, in which he was defeated near Carrhæ by Surena, now dissolved the Triumvirate; and Cæsar and Pompey, whose union had no other bond than interest, began each to conceive separately the view of undivided dominion.

XXXIV.

PROGRESS OF THE CIVIL WARS—SECOND TRIUMVIRATE—AND FALL OF THE REPUBLIC.

1. The ambition of Cæsar and of Pompey had now evidently the same object; and it seemed to be the only question in those degenerate times, to which of these aspiring leaders the republic should surrender its liberties. The term of Cæsar's government was near expiring; but to secure himself against a deprivation of power, he procured a proposal to be made in the senate by one of his partisans, which wore the appearance of great moderation, namely, that Cæsar and Pompey should either both continue in their governments, or both be deprived

of them, as they were equally capable of endangering the public liberty by an abuse of power. The motion passed; and Cæsar immediately offered to resign, on condition that his rival should do so: but Pompey rejected the accommodation; the term of his government had yet several years duration, and he suspected the proposal to be a snare laid for him by Cæsar. He resolved to maintain his right by force of arms, and a civil war was the necessary consequence. The consuls and a great part of the senate were the friends of Pompey. Cæsar had on his side a victorious army, consisting of ten legions, and the body of the Roman citizens whom he had won by his liberality. Mark Antony and Cassius, at that time tribunes of the people, left Rome, and repaired to Cæsar's camp.

2. The senate, apprehensive of his designs, pronounced a decree, branding with the crime of parricide any commander who should dare to pass the Rubicon (a small river which formed the boundary between Italy and Cisalpine Gaul) with a single cohort, without their permission. Cæsar, after much hesitation, infringed the prohibition, and marched straight to Rome. Pompey, to whom the senate committed the defence of the state, had neglected to assemble an army. He quitted Rome, followed by the consuls and part of the senate, and endeavoured hastily to levy troops over all Italy and Greece; while Cæsar triumphantly entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority without opposition. Having secured the capital of the empire, he set out to take the field against his enemies. When he drew near to Brundusium, Pompey and his friends passed over into Greece. Afranius and Petreius, the lieutenants of Pompey, had possession of Spain. Cæsar marched thither, and subdued the whole country in the space of forty days. He returned victorious to Rome, where, in

his absence, he had been nominated dictator. In the succeeding election of magistrates he was chosen consul, and thus invested, by a double title, he had now that legal right of acting in the name of the republic which he had hitherto wanted. Pompey had by this time raised a numerous army in Greece, Macedonia, and Epirus, and had drawn large supplies from the sovereigns of the East, whom he had formerly conquered. Cæsar, anxious to bring him to a decisive engagement, embarked his army at Brundusium, and landed at Dyrrhachium, in Illyria, and the first conflict was of doubtful issue; but leading on his army to Macedonia, where they found a large reinforcement, he gave battle to Pompey in the field of Pharsalia, and entirely defeated him. Fifteen thousand were slain, and 24,000 surrendered themselves prisoners to the victor (A.U.C. 705, B.C. 49). Cæsar found in the camp of Pompey all his letters and papers, and with the greatest magnanimity ordered them to be burned without their being read; declaring, that he wished rather to be ignorant who were his enemies than to be obliged to punish any one.

3. The fate of Pompey was miserable in the extreme. With his wife Cornelia, the companion of his misfortunes, he fled to Egypt in a single ship, trusting to the protection of Ptolemy, whose father had owed to him his settlement on the throne. But the ministers of this young prince, dreading the power of Cæsar, basely courted his favour by the murder of his rival. Brought ashore in a small boat by the guards of the king, a Roman centurion, who had fought under his own banners, stabbed him, even in the sight of Cornelia, and cutting off his head, threw the body naked on the sands, where it was indebted for funeral honours to the gratitude and humanity of an old Roman soldier, who, in the silence of night, with the fragments of a boat made a funeral pile, burned the body, and carried the ashes

to Cornelia.*—Cæsar pursued Pompey to Alexandria, where the head of that unhappy man, presented as a grateful offering, gave him the first intelligence of his fate. He wept, and turned with horror from the sight. He caused every honour to be paid to his memory, and from that time shewed the utmost beneficence to the partisans of his unfortunate rival.

4. The sovereignty of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. The latter, though married to her brother, and joint heir by their father's will, was ambitious of undivided authority; and Cæsar, captivated by her charms, decided the contest in favour of the beauteous queen. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy was killed, and Egypt subdued by the Roman arms. In this war the famous library of Alexandria was burnt to ashes (B. C. 48). A revolt of the Asiatic provinces, under Pharnaces the son of Mithridates, was signally chastised, and the report conveyed by Cæsar to the Roman senate in three words, *Veni, vidi, vici.* The conqueror returned to Rome, where he was elected consul and dictator for the third time. Rome needed his presence; for Italy was divided, and the partisans of Pompey were yet extremely formidable. His two sons, with Cato and Scipio, were in arms in Africa, and powerfully supported by Juba, king of Mauritania. Cæsar followed them thither, and, proceeding with caution till secure of his advantage, defeated them in a decisive engagement at Thapsus. Scipio perished in his passage to Spain. Cato, shutting himself up in Utica, meditated a brave resistance; but finally, seeing no hope of success, he determined not to survive the liberties of his country, and fell deliberately by his own hand. Juba was now driven from his kingdom, Mauritania was

* Such was the miserable end of him who had thrice borne the dignity of consul, thrice been honoured with a triumph, and, been in fact, the lord of the world. In him so great was the reverse of fortune, that he who had but lately found the earth too small for his conquests, could not now command enough to cover his remains. *Vell. Paterculus*, ii. 25.

added to the number of the Roman provinces, and Cæsar returned to Rome absolute master of the empire. He was decreed a splendid triumph, which lasted four days, and on that occasion he gratified the people with the most magnificent games and entertainments, and they in return conferred upon him all the titles and dignities of the state.

5. From that moment his attention was directed solely to the prosperity and happiness of the Roman people. He remembered no longer that there had been opposite parties; beneficent alike to the friends of Pompey as to his own. He laboured to reform every species of abuse or grievance. He introduced order into every department of the state, defining the separate rights of all its magistrates, and extending his care to the regulation of its most distant provinces. The reformation of the calendar, the draining the marshes of Italy, the navigation of the Tiber, the embellishment of Rome, the complete survey and delineation of the empire, alternately employed his liberal and capacious mind. Returning from the final overthrow of Pompey's party in Spain, he was hailed the Father of his Country, was created consul for ten years, and perpetual dictator. His person was declared sacred, his title henceforth *Imperator** (A. U.C. 709, B.C. 45).

6. The Roman republic had thus finally, by its own acts, resigned its liberties. They were not extinguished, as Montesquieu has well remarked, by the ambition of a Pompey, or of a Cæsar. If the sentiments of Cæsar and Pompey had been the same with those of Cato, others would have had the same ambitious thoughts; and since the commonwealth was fated to fall, there never would have been wanting a hand to drag it to destruction. Yet Cæsar had by force subdued his country; he therefore was an usurper; and had it been possible to restore the liberties of the republic, and with these

* A word derived from the ancient language of Italy (*Embratur*), and signifying, general of an army.

its happiness, by the suppression of that usurpation, the attempt had merited the praise at least of good design. Perhaps so thought his murderers; and thus, however weak their policy, however base and treacherous their act, with many they will ever find apologists. They madly dreamed an impossible issue, as the event demonstrated.

7. A conspiracy was formed by sixty of the senators, at the head of whom were Brutus and Cassius; the former a man beloved of Cæsar, who had saved his life, and heaped upon him numberless benefits. It was rumoured that the dictator wished to add to his numerous titles that of king, and that the Ides of March was fixed on for investing him with the diadem. On that day, when taking his seat in the senate-house, he was suddenly assailed by the conspirators; he defended himself for some time against their daggers, till, seeing Brutus amongst the number, he faintly exclaimed, 'And you, too, my son!' and covering his face with his robe, resigned himself to his fate. He fell, pierced by twenty-three wounds, at the foot of Pompey's statue, in the fifty-sixth year of his age (A.U.C. 711, B.C. 43).

8. The Roman people were struck with horror at the deed; they loved Cæsar, master as he was of their lives and liberties. Mark Antony, who was consul, and Lepidus, the general of the horse, ambitious of succeeding to the power of the dictator, resolved to pave the way by avenging his death. The people, to whom Cæsar, by his testament, had bequeathed a great part of his fortune, were penetrated with gratitude to his memory. A public harangue from Antony over the bleeding body, exposed in the forum, inflamed them with the utmost indignation against his murderers, who must have met with instant destruction, had they not escaped with precipitation from the city. Antony profited by these dispositions; and the avenger of Cæsar, of course the favourite of the people, was in the immediate prospect of attaining a similar height of do-

minion. In this, however, he found a formidable competitor in Octavius, the grand-nephew and the adopted heir of Cæsar, who at this critical moment arrived in Rome. Availing himself of these titles, Octavius gained the senate to his interest, and divided with Antony the favour of the people. The rivals soon perceived that it was their wisest plan to unite their interests; and they admitted Lepidus into their association, whose power, as governor of Gaul, and immense riches, gave him a title to a share of authority. Thus was formed the second Triumvirate, the effects of whose union were beyond measure dreadful to the republic. The Triumviri divided among themselves the provinces, and cemented their union by a deliberate sacrifice made by each of his best friends to the vengeance of his associates. Antony consigned to death his uncle Lucius Cæsar, Lepidus his brother Paulus, and Octavius his guardian Toranius, and his friend Cicero. In this horrible proscription 300 senators and 3,000 knights were put to death.

9. Octavius and Antony now marched against the conspirators, who had a formidable army in the field in Thrace, commanded by Brutus and Cassius. An engagement ensued at Philippi in Macedonia, which decided the fate of the empire. Antony was victorious, for Octavius had no military talents; he was destitute even of personal bravery; and his conduct after the victory was stained with that cruelty which is ever the attendant of cowardice. Brutus and Cassius escaped the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death. Antony now sought a recompence for his troops by the plunder of the East. While in Cilicia, he summoned Cleopatra to answer for her conduct in dethroning an infant brother, and in openly favouring the party of Brutus and Cassius. The queen came to Tarsus, and made a complete conquest of the Triumvir. Immersed in luxury, and intoxicated with love, he forgot glory, ambition, fame, and every thing for Cleopatra; and Octavius

saw this frenzy with delight, as the preparative of his rival's ruin. He had nothing to dread from Lepidus, whose insignificant character first drew on him the contempt of his partisans; and whose folly, in attempting an invasion of the province of his colleague, was punished by his deposition and banishment.

10. Antony had in his madness lavished the provinces of the empire in gifts to his paramour and her children. The Roman people were justly indignant at these enormities; and the divorce of his wife Octavia, the sister of his colleague, was at length the signal of declared hostility between them. An immense armament, chiefly naval, came to a decisive conflict near Actium, on the coast of Epirus. Cleopatra, who attended her lover, deserted him with her galleys in the heat of the engagement; and such was the infatuation of Antony, that he abandoned his fleet and followed her. After a contest of some hours, they yielded to the squadron of Octavius (A.U.C. 723, B.C. 31). The victor pursued the fugitives to Egypt; and the base Cleopatra proffered terms to Octavius, including the surrender of her kingdom, and the abandonment of Antony. After an unsuccessful attempt at resistance, he anticipated his fate by falling on his sword. And Cleopatra soon after, either from remorse, or more probably from mortified ambition, as she found it was Octavius's design to lead her in chains to Rome to grace his triumph, had courage to follow the example of her lover, and put herself to death by the poison of an asp.—Egypt, in the 295th year from the death of Alexander the Great, became a Roman province.—Octavius returned to Rome, sole master of the Roman empire (A.U.C. 727, B.C. 27).

XXXV.

CONSIDERATIONS ON SUCH PARTICULARS AS MARK THE GENIUS AND NATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE ROMANS.

SYSTEM OF ROMAN EDUCATION.

1. A VIRTUOUS but rigid severity of manners was the characteristic of the Romans under their kings, and in the first ages of the republic. The private life of the citizens was frugal, temperate, and laborious, which had its influence on their public character. The *Patria potestas* gave to every head of a family a sovereign authority over all the members that composed it; and this power, felt as a right of nature, was never abused. Plutarch has remarked, as a defect of the Roman laws, that they did not prescribe, as those of Lacedæmon, a system and rules for the education of youth. But the truth is, the manners of the people supplied this want. The utmost attention was bestowed in the early formation of the mind and character. The excellent author of the dialogue *De Oratoribus* (whether Quintilian or Tacitus) presents a valuable picture of the Roman education in the early ages of the commonwealth, contrasted with the less virtuous practice of the more refined. The Roman matrons did not abandon their infants to mercenary nurses. They esteemed those duties sacred, and regarded the careful nurture of their offspring, the rudiments of their education, and the necessary occupations of their household, as the highest points of female merit. Next to the care bestowed in the instilment of virtuous morals, a remarkable degree of attention seems to have been given to the language of children, and to the attainment of a correctness and purity of expression. Cicero informs us that the *Gracchi*, the sons of Cornelia, were educated, *non*

tam in græmio quam in sermone matris. That urbanity which characterized the Roman citizens shewed itself particularly in their speech and gesture.

2. The attention to the language of the youth had another source. It was by eloquence more than by any other talent, that the young Roman could rise to the highest offices and dignities of the state. The *studia forensia* were, therefore, a principal object of the Roman education. Plutarch informs us, that among the sports of the children at Rome, one was, the pleading causes before a mock tribunal, and accusing and defending a criminal in the usual forms of judicial procedure.

3. The exercises of the body were likewise particularly attended to; whatever might harden the temperament, and confer strength and agility. These exercises were daily practised by the youth, under the eye of their elders, in the Campus Martius.

4. At seventeen the youth assumed the manly robe, the *toga virilis.* He was consigned to the care of a master of rhetoric, whom he attended constantly to the forum, or to the courts of justice; for to be an accomplished gentleman, it was necessary for a Roman to be an accomplished orator. The pains bestowed on the attainment of this character, and the best instructions for its acquisition, we learn from the writings of Cicero, Quintilian, and the younger Pliny.

XXXVI.

OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. Before the intercourse with Greece which took place after the Punic wars, the Roman people were utterly rude and illiterate. As among all nations the first appearance of the literary spirit is shewn in

poetical composition, the Roman warrior had probably, like the Indian or the Celtic, his war songs, which celebrated his triumphs in battle. Religion likewise employs the earliest poetry of most nations; and if a people subsists by agriculture, a plentiful harvest is celebrated in the rustic song of the husbandman. The *Versus Fescennini*, mentioned by Livy, were probably of the nature of poetical dialogue, or alternate verses sung by the labourers, in a strain of coarse merriment and raillery. This shews a dawning of the drama.

2. About the 390th year of Rome, on occasion of a pestilence, *Ludiones* (drolls or stage-dancers) were brought from Etruria, *qui ad tibicinis modos saltantes, haud indecoros motus more Tusco dabant.* Livy tells us, that the Roman youth imitated these performances, and added to them rude and jocular verses, probably the Fescennine dialogues. It was not, however, till the year 514 A.U.C. that the regular drama was introduced at Rome from Greece by Livius Andronicus, a Greek slave. The earliest Roman plays were, therefore, we may presume, translations from the Greek.

Post Punica bella quietus quærere cepit,
Quid Sophocles, et Thespis, et Æschylus utile ferrent.

3. Of the early Roman drama Ennius was a great ornament, and from his time the art made rapid advancement. The comedies of Plautus, the contemporary of Ennius, with great strength and spirit of dialogue, display a considerable knowledge of human nature, and are read at this day with pleasure.

4. Cæcilius improved so much on the comedy of Plautus, that he is mentioned by Cicero as perhaps the best of the Roman comic writers. Of his compositions we have no remains. His patronage fostered the rising genius of Terence, whose first comedy, the *Andria*, was performed A. U. C. 587. The merit of the comedies of Terence lies in that nature and simplicity which are observable alike in the structure of his fables, in the delineation of his

characters, and in the delicacy and purity of the sentiments of his pieces. They are deficient, however, in comic energy; they are not calculated to excite ludicrous emotions. They are chiefly borrowed from the Greek of Menander and Apollodorus.

5. The Roman Comedy was of four different species: the *Comœdia Togata* or *Prætextata*, the *Comedia Tabernaria*, the *Attellanæ*, and the *Mimi*. The first admitted serious scenes and personages, and was of the nature of modern sentimental comedy. The second was a representation of ordinary life and manners. The *Attellanæ* were pieces where the dialogue was not committed to writing, but the subject of the scene was prescribed, and the dialogue filled up by the talents of the actors. The *Mimi* were pieces of comedy of the lowest species; farces, or entertainments of buffoonery; though sometimes admitting the serious, and even the pathetic.

6. The Roman tragedy kept pace in its advancement with the comedy. The best of the Roman tragic poets were Actius and Pacuvius, of whom we have no remains. The tragedies published under the name of Seneca are generally esteemed the work of different hands. They are none of them of superlative merit.

7. Velleius Paterculus remarks, that the era of the perfection of Roman literature was the age of Cicero; comprehending all of the preceding times whom Cicero might have seen, and all of the succeeding who might have seen him. Cicero, Quintilian, and Pliny, celebrate, in high terms, the writings of the elder Cato, whose principal works were historical, and have entirely perished. We have his fragments, *de Re Rustica*, in which he was imitated by Varro, one of the earliest of the good writers among the Romans, and a man of universal erudition. Of the variety of his talents we may judge, not only from the splendid eulogium of

Cicero, but from the circumstance of Pliny having recourse to his authority in every book of his Natural History.

8. Sallust, in order of time, comes next to Varro. This writer introduced an important improvement on history, as treated by the Greek historians, by applying (as Dionysius of Halicarnassus says) the science of philosophy to the study of facts. Sallust is therefore to be considered as the father of philosophic history; a species of writing which has been so successfully cultivated in modern times. He is an admirable writer for the matter of his compositions, which evince great judgment and knowledge of human nature; but by no means commendable for his style and manner of writing. He affects singularity of expression, an antiquated phraseology, and a petulant brevity and sententiousness, which has nothing of the dignity of the historical style.

9. Cæsar has much more purity of style than Sallust, and more correctness and simplicity of expression: but his Commentaries, wanting that amplitude of diction and fulness of illustration which is essential to history, are rather of the nature of annals—but as such, they have never been excelled.

10. In all the requisites of an historian, Livy stands unrivalled among the Romans; possessing consummate judgment in the selection of facts, perspicuity of arrangement, sagacious reflection, sound views of policy, with the most copious, pure, and eloquent expression. It has been objected, that his speeches derogate from the truth of history; but this was a prevalent taste with the ancient writers; and as those speeches are always known to be the composition of the historian, the reader is not deceived. As to the style of Livy, though in general excellent, we sometimes perceive in it, and most commonly in the speeches, an affectation of the pointed sentences (the *vibrantes sententiolæ*) and obscurity of the declaimers, which evinces the per-

nicious influence acquired by those teachers at Rome since the time of Cicero and Sallust.

11. In the decline of Roman literature, Tacitus is an historian of no common merit. He successfully cultivated the method pointed out by Sallust, of applying philosophy to history. In this he displays great knowledge of human nature, and penetrates, with singular acuteness, into the secret springs of policy, and the motives of actions. But his fault is, that he is too much of a politician, drawing his characters after the model of his own mind; ever assigning actions and events to preconceived scheme and design, and allowing too little for the operation of accidental causes, which often have the greatest influence on human affairs. Tacitus, in his style, professedly imitated that of Sallust; adopting all the ancient phraseology, as well as the new idioms introduced into the Roman language by that writer. To his brevity and abruptness, he added most of the faults of the declaiming school. His expression, therefore, though extremely forcible, is often enigmatically obscure; the very worst property that style can possess.

12. Among the eminent Roman poets (after the dramatic) Lucretius deserves first to be noticed. He has great inequality, being at some times verbose, rugged, and perplexed, and at others displaying all the elements as well as the fire of poetry. This may be in great part attributed to his subject. Philosophical disquisition is unsuitable to poetry. It demands a dry precision of thought and expression, rejecting all excursive fancy and ornament of diction. That luxuriance of imagery, which is the soul of poetry, is raving and impertinence when applied to philosophy.

13. Catullus, the contemporary of Lucretius, is the earliest of the Roman lyric poets. His Epigrams are pointed and satirical, but too licentious; his Idyllia tender, natural, and picturesque. He flourished in the age of Julius Cæsar.

14. In the succeeding age of Augustus, poetry attained to its highest elevation among the Romans. Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Tibullus, were all contemporaries; and it may be safely asserted that these poets, in their several departments, were never equalled in any of the succeeding ages of the empire. Virgil is allowed the same rank among the Roman poets as Homer among the Greek. If Homer excels him in the sublime, he surpasses the Greek in the tender and the elegant. The transcendent merits of Homer are sullied by occasional defects; Virgil is the model of a correct taste. The difference of manner in the Bucolics, the Georgics, and the Æneid, shews that Virgil was capable of excelling in various departments of poetry; and such is the opinion of Martial, who affirms, that he could have surpassed Horace in lyric poetry, and Varius in tragedy.

15. Horace excels as a lyric poet, a satirist, and a critic. In his odes there is more variety than in those of either Anacreon or Pindar; and he can alternately display the sublimity of the one, and the jocose vein of the other. His Satires have that characteristic slyness and obliquity of censure, associated with humour and pleasantry, which strongly distinguish them from the stern and cutting sarcasm of Juvenal. As a critic, his rules are taken chiefly from Aristotle; but they contain the elements of a just taste in poetical composition, and therefore do not admit of variation. The Satires of Juvenal, compared with those of Horace, are deficient in facetiousness and urbanity; but they are superior in acuteness of thought, and in manly vigour of sentiment.

16. In variety of talent, without supreme excellence, and ease and elegance of numbers, no Roman poet has excelled Ovid. In his Metamorphoses particularly, with great fancy, we have specimens of the pathetic, the descriptive, the eloquent, and even the sublime. His Elegies have more of nature and

of real passion than those of either Tibullus or Propertius. His amatory verses have much tenderness but are too frequently loose, and even grossly licentious.

17. There is nothing more elegant than the compositions of Tibullus, nothing more delicate than the turn of his expression; but it is not the language of passion. The sentiments are tender, but their power of affecting the heart is weakened by the visible care and solicitude of the poet for refined phraseology and polished numbers; nor is there either much fancy or variety of thought. A single elegy exhibits the sentiments of the whole.

18. Martial is the last of the Roman poets who can be mentioned with high approbation. His Epigrams, independent of their art and ingenuity, are valuable, as throwing light upon the Roman manners. He possesses, above every other poet, a *naiveté* of expression, which is chiefly observable in his serious Epigrams. He is well characterized by the younger Pliny, 'ingeniosus, acer, et qui in scribendo et salis haberet et fellis, nec candoris minus.' Epist. iii. 21.

19. Luxuriance of ornament, and the fondness for point, and brilliancy of thought and expression, are certain indications of the decline of good taste. These characters were discernible even in Martial, and strongly mark the Latin poets of the succeeding ages. Lucan has some scattered examples of genuine poetic imagery, and Persius some happy strokes of animated satire; but they scarcely compensate the affected obscurity of the one, and the bombast of the other. The succeeding poets, Statius, Silius-Italicus, and Valerius Flaccus, in their attempts at the most difficult of all species of poetry, the Epic, have only more signally displayed the inferiority of their genius, and the manifest decay of the art.

XXXVII.

STATE OF PHILOSOPHY AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. The Romans, in the earlier periods of the republic, being constantly engaged in war, had little leisure to bestow on the cultivation of the sciences, and had no idea of philosophical speculation. It was not till the end of the sixth century from the building of the city, and in the interval between the war with Perseus of Macedon and the third Punic war, that philosophy made its first appearance at Rome. A few learned Achæans, banished from their native country, had settled in various parts of Italy, and, applying themselves to the cultivation of literature and the education of youth, diffused a taste for those studies hitherto unknown to the Romans. The elder citizens regarded these pursuits with an unfavourable eye. Jealous of the introduction of foreign manners with foreign studies, the senate banished the Greek philosophers from Rome. But an Athenian embassy arriving soon after, brought thither Carneades and Critolaus, who, by their discourses, revived the taste for the Greek philosophy, and left behind them many able disciples, who publicly taught their doctrines.

2. It was natural that those systems should be most generally adopted which were most suitable to the national character. While the manners of the Romans had yet a tincture of ancient severity, the Stoical system prevailed. Scipio, Lælius, and the younger Cato, rank among its chief partisans.

3. The philosophy of Aristotle was little known in Rome till the age of Cicero. Cratippus and Tyrannion then taught his system with great reputation. Yet Cicero complains that the Peripatetic philosophy was little understood at Rome; and, on

that account, he sent his son to study its doctrines in the schools of Athens.

4. Lucullus, whose stay in Greece gave him an opportunity of being acquainted with all the different sects, disseminated, on his return to Rome, a very general taste for philosophy. His patronage of learned men, and his liberality in allowing his library to be open for the public use, contributed greatly to the promotion of literature.

5. The Old and New Academy had each their partisans. Of the former, which may be termed the Stoico-Platonic, the most illustrious disciples were Marcus Brutus and Terentius Varro. To the philosophical talents of Brutus, and the universal erudition of Varro, the writings of Cicero bear the most ample testimony. Cicero himself must be deemed the most eminent of all the Roman philosophers. He is classed among the principal supporters of the New Academy; though it seems rather to have been his purpose to elucidate the Greek Philosophy in general, than to rank himself among the disciples of any particular sect.

6. The cultivation of Physics, or Natural Philosophy, seems to have been little attended to either by the Greeks or Romans. Unless Agriculture should be classed under this description, we know of no Roman authors, except Varro and the elder Pliny, who seem to have bestowed much attention on the operations of nature. The works of the former have perished except a few fragments; but the Natural History of Pliny is a most valuable storehouse of the knowledge of the ancients in Physics, Economics, and the Arts and Sciences. It is to be regretted that the style is unsuitable to the matter, being too frequently florid, declamatory, and obscure.

7. The philosophy of Epicurus was unknown in the early ages of the Roman commonwealth. It was introduced with luxury, and kept pace in its advancement with the corruption of manners. Cineas having discoursed on the tenets of Epicurus at

the table of Pyrrhus, Fabricius exclaimed, 'May the enemies of Rome ever entertain such principles!' Yet these principles were, in a short time from that period, but too current among her own citizens.

XXXVIII.

OF THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE MANNERS OF THE ROMANS.

1. The manners of the Romans in the early ages of the republic were so different from those of the latter times, that one should be led to suppose some very extraordinary causes to have co-operated to produce so remarkable a change; yet the transition is easy to be accounted for. A spirit of temperance, of frugality, and probity, is the characteristic of every infant establishment. A virtuous simplicity of manners, and a rigour of military discipline, paved the way for the extension of the Roman arms, and for their prodigious conquests; these conquests introduced wealth, luxury, and corruption.

2. In the early times, the patricians, when in the country, forgot the distinction of ranks, and laboured in the cultivation of their fields, like the meanest plebeians. We have the examples of Cincinnatus the dictator, Curius, who expelled Pyrrhus from Italy, the elder Cato, and Scipio Africanus, the conqueror of Hannibal, and the destroyer of Carthage. The town was visited only every ninth or market-day, on which occasions they provided themselves with necessaries for the week, and took their part in the public business of the republic. In those times of virtuous simplicity, says Sallust, 'Domi militiæque boni mores colebantur.—Duabus artibus, audacia in bello, ubi pax evenerat, æquitate, sequeremque publicam curabant.' But when, in consequence of this very discipline, and these manners, the Romans had extended their dominion, they im-

ported with the wealth of the conquered nations their tastes, their manners, and their vices.

3. The Romans had no natural taste in the fine arts. On the conquest of Greece, an immense field opened at once to their eyes, and the masterpieces of art poured in upon them in abundance. But their excellences they could not appreciate. The Roman luxury, so far as the arts were concerned, was in general displayed in an awkward, heavy, and tasteless magnificence.

4. The public and private life of the Romans will be best elucidated by a short account of the manner in which the day was passed at Rome, both by the higher and lower ranks of the people.* The morning hours were spent by a part of the citizens in visiting the temples; by others in attending the levees of the great. The *Clientes* waited on their *Patroni;* the patricians visited each other, or paid their compliments to the leaders of the republic. Popularity was always the first object of ambition at Rome, as paving the way to all advancement. From the levee they proceeded to the Forum, either to assist in the public business, or for amusement. There the time was spent till noon, the hour of dinner among the Romans, chiefly a very light repast, and of which it was not customary to invite any guests to partake. After dinner the youth repaired to the Campus Martius, where they occupied themselves in athletic exercises and sports till sunset. The elder class retired for an hour to repose, and then passed the afternoon in their porticos, galleries, or libraries, where they enjoyed the conversation of their friends, or heard recitations of literary works; others repaired to the theatres, or to the shows of the circus and amphitheatre.

* It is remarkable that the Romans for nearly 500 years were ignorant of the mode of dividing the day into hours, and that they knew no other distinction but that of morning, mid-day, and evening. We are also informed by Pliny that sun-dials were not in use until the 477th year of Rome, and it was nearly a century later when the water-clock was introduced by Scipio Nasica.

5. Combats of gladiators were introduced for the first time about the 490th year of the city, by Marius and Decimus Brutus, and soon became a most favourite amusement, as did the combats with wild beasts. The spirit of luxury, which in general is not unfavourable to humanity, shewed its progress among the Romans by an increasing ferocity and inhumanity of the public spectacles. Theatrical entertainments were in high request. See *supra*, Sect. XXXVI. § 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. The taste for pantomime came to such a height, that the art was taught in public schools, and the nobility and people were divided into parties in favour of the rival performers: an abuse which called at length for the interposition of the laws.

6. From the porticos, or from the theatre and amphitheatre, it was customary to go to the baths, of which there were many for the use of the public, while the rich had them in their own houses, vying with each other in this as in every other article of luxury or magnificence. From the bath they went immediately to supper, generally about the ninth or tenth hour, counting from sunrise. At table they reclined on couches. The luxury of the Roman suppers far exceeded every thing known among the moderns. An *antecœniam* of pickles and spices was presented to prepare and sharpen the appetite. Cookery became a science. The number and costliness of the dishes were incredible. The entertainment was heightened by every thing gratifying to the senses; by male and female dancers, musicians, pantomimes, and even shows of gladiators.

7. In the end of the republic, pleasure and amusement were the darling objects of all ranks of the citizens: they sought no more than *panem et circenses*.

XXXIX.

OF THE ART OF WAR AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. From the prodigious success which attended the arms of the Romans, and that dominion they acquired over the greatest part of the known world, it seems a natural inference, that they must have carried the military art to a higher degree of perfection than any other of the contemporary nations. Vegetius expressly assigns their extensive conquests to that cause alone. It is the discipline of an army that makes the multitude act as one man. It likewise increases the courage of troops; for each individual confides in the steady co-operation of his fellows.

2. From the constant practice of athletic exercises, the Romans were inured from infancy to hardiness and fatigue, and bred to that species of life which a soldier leads in the most active campaign in the field.

3. Twenty-four military tribunes were chosen annually; fourteen from the order of the *Equites*, and ten from the citizens. The people were then commanded by an edict of the consuls to assemble on a particular day, when the levies were made. The tribes were then called out, and divided into their respective number of centuries; each century presenting by rotation as many soldiers as there were legions intended to be raised. The tribunes were divided among the several legions; and the tribunes of each legion took their turn by rotation in the selection of the men presented by the centuries. By this plan the soldiers from each century were equally distributed in each legion. See *supra*, Sect. XXIV. § 16. The number of soldiers in the legion was various at different periods, from 3,000 to 10,000 and 11,000.

4. Among the ancient nations there were usually but two different arrangements of the troops in order of battle. The one the Phalanx, or close arrangement in parallelogram, intersected only by great divisions; a disposition commonly used by the Greeks, and by most of the barbarous nations. The other the Quincunx, or Chequer, consisting of small companies or platoons, disposed in three straight lines, with alternate spaces between them equal to the space occupied by each company. In the first line were the *Hastati*, in the second the *Principes*, and in the third the *Triarii*. On the flanks of the first line were the cavalry, likewise in detached companies, and in front of the line were the *Velites*, or light-armed troops, who usually began by a skirmishing attack, and then were withdrawn to make way for the main body to come into action. The arms of the legion were, for the *hastati* and *principes*, the *pilum* or heavy javelin, and the sword and buckler; and for the *triarii*, the long spear, with the sword and buckler. The advantages of this arrangement were, that the line of battle could be three times formed with fresh troops, and that it was more fitted than any other for rapid changes of movement.

5. Notwithstanding these advantages the *quincunx* went into disuse towards the end of the republic, and from that time various arrangements of the legion were used according to circumstances. The tactic of the Romans is supposed to have been at its greatest pitch of excellence during the Punic wars. Hannibal was a great master of the science, and the Romans profited by the experience of his ability. The battle of Cannæ, as described by Polybius, affords signal evidence of the great talents of the Carthaginian general. That description has been misrepresented by Folard, but is accurately explained in the *Memoires Militaires* of M. Guischardt. Had the quincunx disposition been kept by the Roman army in that engagement, the event might

have been very different, as it would have disappointed the effect of an artful manœuvre planned by Hannibal, on observing his enemy's army arranged in the unusual order of the phalanx.

6. The art of intrenchment was carried to great perfection by the Romans, particularly by Julius Cæsar, who considered it possible to make up for any inferiority of force by increasing the strength of his intrenchments. Thus with 60,000 men he defended himself in his intrenchments before Alexia, while the lines of circumvallation were attacked by 240,000 Gauls, and the lines of countervallation by 80,000, without effect. These intrenchments consisted of a ditch from nine to fifteen feet in depth and width, fenced on the inside by the mound of excavated earth, and on the outside by strong stakes with pointed branches.

7. In besieging a town, several camps were formed around the place, joined to each other by lines of circumvallation and countervallation. A mound of earth *(agger)* was raised, beginning by a gentle slope from one of the camps, and gradually rising in elevation as it approached the city. The front, where the workmen were employed, was defended by a curtain of hides fixed on strong posts. On this mound the engines of attack, *Catapultæ* for the discharge of heavy stones, and *Balistæ* for arrows, were advanced, till they played on the very spot which the besiegers wished to assail. The same machines were used by the besieged for annoying the enemy. When the batteries from the terrace had silenced those on the walls, the battering-ram *(aries)* was then brought up under a penthouse *(testudo)*, and, if it once reached the wall, was generally decisive of the fate of the town. The main object of the besieged was therefore to prevent its approach by every power of annoyance. Stones, darts, and combustible matters, were continually launched upon the assailants; and sometimes a mine was dug from the city to scoop away the terrace and

all its engines. These arts of attack and defence of fortified places were in general use among the nations of antiquity, and continued down to modern times, till the invention of gunpowder.

8. The naval military art was utterly unknown among the Romans till the first Punic war. A Carthaginian galley was the first model; and in the space of two months they equipped a fleet of 100 galleys of five banks of oars, and twenty of three banks. The structure of these galleys and the mode of arranging the rowers, may be learned from the ancient sculptures and medals. The combatants at sea assailed at a distance with javelins, missile combustibles, and sometimes with *catapultæ* and *balistæ*; but the serious attack was made in boarding, when the vessels grappled together by means of a crane let down from the prow.

9. In the times of the empire, the Romans maintained their distant conquests, not only by their armies, but by their fleets, which were moored in the large rivers and bays, and generally preserved a fixed station, as did the legions.

XL.

REFLECTIONS ARISING FROM A VIEW OF THE ROMAN HISTORY DURING THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. The history of all nations evinces, that there is an inseparable connexion between the morals of a people and their political prosperity. But we have no stronger demonstration of this truth than the annals of the Roman commonwealth. To limit to republics alone the necessity of virtue as a principle, is a chimerical notion, fraught with dangerous consequences. 'Quid leges sine moribus vanæ proficiunt,' is a sentiment equally applicable to all governments whatever; and no political system, however excellent its fabric, can possess any measure of

duration, without that powerful cement, virtue, in the principles and manners of the people.—*Supra*, Sect. XIX. § 4.

2. The love of our country, and the desire for its rational liberty, are noble and virtuous feelings, and their prevalence is ever a test of the integrity of the national morals. But there is no term which has been more prostituted than the word liberty. Among a corrupted people, the cry for liberty is heard the loudest among the most profligate of the community. With these its meaning has no relation to patriotism; it imports no more than the aversion to restraint; and the personal character of the demagogue, and the private morals of his disciples, are always sufficient to unmask the counterfeit. The spirit of patriotism and a general corruption of manners cannot possibly be co-existent in the same age and nation.

3. On the other hand, while the morals of a people are pure, no public misfortune is irretrievable, nor any political situation so desperate that hope may not remain of a favourable change. In such a crisis, the spirit of patriotism pervading all ranks of the state will soon recover the national prosperity. The history of the Roman people, and that of the Grecian states, in various crises, both of honour and of disgrace, afford proofs alike of this position and of its converse.

4. The national character of the Romans seems to have undergone its most remarkable change for the worse from the time of the destruction of their rival Carthage. Sallust assigns the cause: 'Ante Carthaginem deletam,——metus hostilis in bonis artibus civitatem retinebat. Sed ubi illa formido mentibus decessit, scilicet ea quæ secundæ res amant, lascivia atque superbia invasere.'

5. In the last ages of the commonwealth, avarice and ambition, unrestrained by moral principle, were the chief motives of the Roman conquests. It was sufficient reason for going to war, that a country of-

fered a tempting object to the rapacity and ambition of the military leaders. The conquest of Italy paved the way for the reduction of foreign nations. Hence the Romans imported, with their wealth, the manners, the luxuries, and the vices, of the nations they subdued. The generals returned not as formerly, after a successful war, to the labours of the field, and to a life of temperance and industry. They were now the governors of kingdoms and provinces; and at the period of their command abroad, disdaining the restraints of a subject, they could be satisfied with nothing less than sovereignty at home. The armies, debauched by the plunder of kingdoms, were completely disposed to support them in all their schemes of ambition; and the populace, won by corruption, always took part with the chief who best could pay for their favour and support. Force or bribery overruled every election; and the inhabitants of distant states, now holding the rights of citizens, were brought to Rome at the command of the demagogue, to influence any popular contest, and turn the scale in his favour. In a government thus irretrievably destroyed, by the decay of those springs which supported it, it was of little consequence by the hands of what particular tyrant, usurper, or demagogue, its ruin was finally accomplished.

6. From the consideration of the rise and fall of the principal states of antiquity, it has been a commonly received observation, that the constitution of empires has, like the human body, a period of growth, maturity, decline, and extinction. But arguments from analogy are extremely deceiving, and particularly so when the analogy is from physical to moral truths. The human body is, from its fabric, naturally subject to decay, and is perpetually undergoing a change from time. The organs, at first weak, attain gradually their perfect strength, and thence, by a similar gradation, proceed to decay and dissolution. This is an immutable law of its nature. But the springs of the body politic do not necessarily

undergo a perpetual change from time. It is not regularly progressive from weakness to strength, and thence to decay and dissolution; nor is it under the influence of any principle of corruption which may not be checked, and even eradicated by wholesome laws. Thus the beginning of the corruption of Sparta is attributed to the breach by Lysander of the institutions of Lycurgus, in introducing gold into the treasury of the state instead of her iron money. But was this a necessary or an unavoidable measure? Perhaps a single vote in the senate decreed its adoption, and therefore another suffrage might have saved, or long postponed the downfall of the commonwealth. The Roman republic owed its dissolution to the extension of its dominions. Had it been a capital crime for any Roman citizen to have proposed to carry the arms of the republic beyond the limits of Italy, its constitution might have been preserved for many ages beyond the period of its actual duration. 'Accustom your mind,' said Phocion to Aristias, 'to discern, in the fate of nations, that recompence which the great Author of nature has annexed to the practice of virtue; and in their adversity, the chastisement which he has thought proper to bestow on vice. No state ever ceased to be prosperous, but in consequence of having departed from those institutions to which she owed her prosperity.' History indeed has shewn, that all states and empires have had their period of duration; but history, instructing us in the causes which have produced their decline and downfall, inculcates also this salutary lesson, that they themselves are in general the masters of their destiny, and that all nations may, and most certainly ought to, aspire at immortality.

7. It was a great *desideratum* in ancient politics, that a government should possess within itself the power of periodical reformation; a capacity of checking any overgrowth of authority in any of its branches, and of winding up the machine, or bring-

ing back the constitution to its first principles. To the want of such a power in the states of antiquity, which was ineffectually endeavoured to be supplied by such partial contrivances as the Ostracism and Petalism, we may certainly ascribe in no small degree the decay of those states; for in their governments, when the balance was once destroyed, the evil grew worse from day to day, and admitted of no remedy but a revolution, or entire change of the system.*—The British constitution possesses this inestimable advantage over all the governments both of ancient and of modern times. Besides the perpetual power of reform vested in parliament, the constitution may be purified of every abuse, and brought back to its first principles, at the commencement of every reign. But of this we shall afterwards treat in its proper place.

XLI.

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS.

1. The battle of Actium decided the fate of the commonwealth, and Octavius, now named Augustus by the senate, and invested with the title of Imperator, was master of the Roman empire. He possessed completely the sagacity of discerning what character was best fitted for gaining the affections of the people he governed, and the versatility of temper and genius to assume it. His virtues, though the result of policy, not of nature, were certainly favourable to the happiness, and even to the liberties, of his subjects. The fate of Cæsar warned him of the insecurity of an usurped dominion; and therefore, while he studiously imitated the engaging manners and clemency of his great predecessor, he affected a much higher

* It is important to observe that the principle of representation did not exis in any of the ancient states or republics.

degree of moderation and respect for the rights of the people.

2. The temple of Janus was shut, which had been open for 188 years, since the beginning of the second Punic war; an event productive of universal joy. 'The Romans,' says Condillac, 'now believed themselves a free people, since they had no longer to fight for their liberty.' The sovereign kept up this delusion, by maintaining the ancient forms of the republican constitution, in the election of magistrates, &c., though they were nothing more than forms. He even pretended to consider his own function as merely a temporary administration for the public benefit. Invested with the consulate and censorship, he went through the regular forms of periodical election to those offices; and at the end of the seventh year of his government actually announced to the senate his resignation of all authority. The consequence was a general supplication of the senate and people, that he would not abandon the republic, which he had saved from destruction. 'Since it must be so,' said he, 'I accept the empire for ten years, unless the public tranquillity should before that time permit me to enjoy that retirement I passionately long for.' He repeated the same mockery five times in the course of his government, accepting the administration sometimes for ten, and sometimes only for five years.

3. It was much to the credit of Augustus, that in the government of the empire he reposed unlimited confidence in Mecænas, a most able minister, who had sincerely at heart the interest and happiness of the people. It was by his excellent counsels that all public affairs were conducted, and the most salutary laws enacted for the remedy of public grievances, and even the correction of the morals of the people. It was to his patronage that literature and the arts owed their encouragement and advancement. It was by his influence and wise instructions that Augustus assumed those virtues to which his heart was

a stranger, and which, in their tendency to the happiness of his subjects, were equally effectual as if the genuine fruits of his nature.

4. On the death of Marcellus, the nephew and son-in-law of Augustus (23 B.C.), a prince of great hopes, the emperor bestowed his chief favour on Marcus Agrippa, giving him his daughter Julia, the widow of Marcellus, in marriage. Agrippa had considerable military talents, and was successful in accomplishing the reduction of Spain, and subduing the revolted provinces of Asia. Augustus associated him with himself in the office of censor, and would probably have given him a share of the empire; but the death of Agrippa occasioned a new arrangement. The daughter of Augustus now took for her third husband Tiberius, who became the son-in-law of the emperor by a double tie, for Augustus had previously married his mother Livia. This artful woman, removing all of the imperial family who stood betwixt her and the object of her ambition, thus made room for the succession of her son Tiberius, who, on his part, bent all his attention to gain the favour and confidence of Augustus. On the return of Tiberius from a successful campaign against the Germans, the people were made to solicit the emperor to confer on him the government of the provinces and the command of the armies. Augustus now gradually withdrew himself from the cares of empire. He died soon after at Nola in Campania, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and forty-fourth of his imperial reign (A.U.C. 767, and A.D. 14). At the time of his death the empire was bounded by the Atlantic ocean on the west, the Rhine and Danube on the north, the Euphrates on the east, and the deserts of Arabia and Africa on the south; and these boundaries he recommended in his testament to be considered as the natural limits of the empire.

5. A considerable part of the lustre thrown on the reign of Augustus is owing to the splendid colouring bestowed on his character by the poets

and other authors who adorned his court, and repaid his favours by their adulation. Assuredly other sovereigns of much higher merits have been less fortunate in obtaining the applause of posterity:

——————— Illacrymabiles
Urgentur, ignotique longa
Nocte, carent quia vate sacro.

One great event distinguished the reign of Augustus, the birth of our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST, which, according to the best authorities, happened in the 754th year A.U.C., and four years before the vulgar date of the Christian era.*

6. Augustus, by his testament, had named Tiberius his heir, together with his mother Livia, and substituted to them Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and Germanicus. Tiberius was vicious, debauched, and cruel; yet the very dread of his character operated in securing an easy succession to the empire. An embassy from the senate entreated him to accept the government, which he modestly affected to decline, but suffered himself to be won by their supplications. Notwithstanding this symptom of moderation, it soon appeared that the power enjoyed by his predecessor was too limited for the ambition of Tiberius. It was not enough that the substance of the republic was gone, the very appearance of it was now to be abolished. The people were no longer assembled, and the magistrates of the state were supplied by the imperial will.

7. Germanicus, the nephew of Tiberius, became the object of his jealousy, from the glory he had acquired by his military exploits in Germany, and the high favour in which he stood with the Roman people. He was recalled in the midst of his successes, and despatched to the oriental provinces, where he soon after died, as was generally believed, of poison, administered by the emperor's command.

* *Vide* Dr. Playfair's System of Chronology, p. 49, 50. a work of great research and accuracy, and by far the best on that subject.

8. Ælius Sejanus, prefect of the prætorian guards, the favourite counsellor of Tiberius, and the obsequious minister of his tyranny and crimes, conceived the daring project of a revolution, which should place himself on the throne, by the extermination of the whole imperial family. Drusus, the son of the emperor, was cut off by poison. Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, with the elder of her sons, was banished, and the younger confined to prison. Tiberius himself was persuaded by Sejanus, under the pretence of the discovery of plots for his assassination, to retire from Rome to the Isle of Capreæ, and devolve the government upon his faithful minister. But while Sejanus, thus far successful, meditated the last step to the accomplishment of his wishes, by the murder of his sovereign, his treason was detected; and the emperor despatched his mandate to the senate, which was followed by his immediate sentence and execution. The public indignation was not satisfied with his death: the populace tore his body to pieces, and flung it into the Tiber.

9. Tiberius now became utterly negligent of the cares of government, and the imperial power was displayed only in public executions, confiscations, and scenes of cruelty and rapine. At length the tyrant, falling sick, was strangled in his bed by Macro, the new prefect, who had succeeded Sejanus in the command of the prætorian guards, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign.

10. In the eighteenth year of Tiberius, our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, the Divine Author of our religion, suffered death upon the cross, a sacrifice and propitiation for the sins of mankind (A.D. 33).

11. Tiberius, by his testament, had nominated for his heir Caligula, the son of Germanicus, his grandson by adoption, and joined with him Tiberius, the son of Drusus, his grandson by blood. The former

enjoyed, on his father's account, the favour of the people; and the senate, to gratify them, set aside the right of his colleague, and conferred on him the empire undivided. The commencement of his reign was signalized by a few acts of clemency and even good policy. He restored the privileges of the comitia, and abolished arbitrary prosecutions for crimes of state. But, tyrannical and cruel by nature, he substituted military execution for legal punishment. The provinces were loaded with the most oppressive taxes, and daily confiscations filled the imperial coffers. The follies and absurdities of Caligula were equal to his vices, and it is hard to say whether he was most the object of hatred or of contempt to his subjects. He at length perished by assassination in the fourth year of his reign, and twenty-ninth of his age (A.U.C. 794, A.D. 42).

12. Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, was saluted emperor by the prætorian guards, who had been the murderers of his nephew. He was the son of Octavia, the sister of Augustus; a man of weak intellects, and of no education; yet his short reign was marked by an enterprise of importance. He undertook the reduction of Britain; and, after visiting the island in person, left his generals Plautius and Vespasian, to prosecute a war which was carried on for several years with various success. The Silures, or inhabitants of South Wales, under their king Caractacus (Caradoc), made a brave resistance, but were finally defeated, and Caractacus led captive to Rome, where the magnanimity of his demeanour procured him respect and admiration.

13. The civil administration of Claudius was weak and contemptible. He was the slave even of his domestics, and the dupe of his infamous wives, Messalina and Agrippina. The former, abandoned to the most shameful profligacy, was at length put to death, on suspicion of treasonable designs. The latter, who was the daughter of Germanicus, bent her utmost endeavours to secure the succession to

the empire to her son Domitius Œnobardus, and employed every engine of vice and inhumanity to remove the obstacles to the accomplishment of her wishes. Having at length prevailed on Claudius to adopt her son, and confer on him the title of Cæsar, to the exclusion of his own son Britannicus, she now made room for the immediate elevation of Domitius, by poisoning her husband. Claudius was put to death in the fifteenth year of his reign, and sixty-third of his age.

XLII.

1. The son of Agrippina assumed the name of Nero Claudius. He had enjoyed the benefit of a good education under the philosopher Seneca, but reaped from his instructions no other fruit than a pedantic affectation of taste and learning, with no real pretension to either. While controlled by his tutor Seneca, and by Burrhus, captain of the prætorian guards, a man of worth and ability, Nero maintained for a short time a decency of public conduct; but the restraint was intolerable, and nature soon broke out. His real character was a compound of every thing that is base and inhuman. In the murder of his mother Agrippina, he revenged the crime she had committed in raising him to the throne; he rewarded the fidelity of Burrhus by poisoning him · and as a last kindness to his tutor Seneca, he allowed him to choose the mode of his death. It was his darling amusement to exhibit on the stage and amphitheatre as an actor, musician, or gladiator. At length, become the object of universal hatred and contempt, a rebellion of his subjects, headed by Vindex, an illustrious Gaul, hurled this monster from the throne. Vindex offered the empire to Galba, then in command of the Spanish army, who assumed the title of Lieutenant of the Senate and People of Rome, and being supported

by the provinces, Nero had not courage to attempt resistance; and a slave, at his own request, despatched him with a dagger. Nero perished in the thirtieth year of his age, after a reign of fourteen years (A.D. 69).

2. Galba, the successor of Nero, was of an ancient and illustrious family. He was in the seventy-third year of his age when the senate, ratifying the choice of the prætorian bands, proclaimed him emperor. But an impolitic rigour of discipline soon disgusted the army; the avarice of his disposition, grudging the populace their favourite games and spectacles, deprived him of their affections; and some iniquitous prosecutions and confiscations excited general discontent and mutiny. Galba adopted and designed for his successor the able and virtuous Piso; a measure which excited the jealousy of Otho, his former favourite, and led him to form the daring plan of raising himself to the throne by the destruction of both. He found the prætorians apt to his purpose; they proclaimed him emperor, and presented him, as a grateful offering, the heads of Galba and Piso, who were slain in quelling the insurrection. Galba had reigned only seven months, 'Major privato visus,' says Tacitus, 'dum privatus fuit, et omnium consensu capax imperii, nisi imperasset.'

3. Otho had a formidable rival in Vitellius, who had been proclaimed emperor by his army in Germany. It is hard to say which of the competitors was, in point of abilities, the more despicable, or in character the more infamous. A decisive battle was fought at Bedriacum, near Mantua, where the army of Otho was defeated, and their commander, in a fit of despair, ended his life by his own hand, after a reign of three months (A.D. 70).

4. The reign of Vitellius was of eight months' duration. He is said to have proposed Nero for his model, and it was just that he should resemble him in his fate. Vespasian, who had obtained from Nero

the charge of the war against the Jews, which he had conducted with ability and success, was proclaimed emperor by his troops in the East; and a great part of Italy submitting to his generals, Vitellius meanly capitulated to save his life, by a resignation of the empire. The people, indignant at his dastardly spirit, compelled him to an effort of resistance, but the attempt was fruitless. Priscus, one of the generals of Vespasian, took possession of Rome, and Vitellius was massacred, and his body flung into the Tiber.

5. Vespasian, though of mean descent, was worthy of the empire, and reigned with high popularity for ten years. He possessed great clemency of disposition; his manners were affable and engaging, and his mode of life was characterized by simplicity and frugality. He respected the ancient forms of the constitution, restored the senate to its deliberative rights, and acted by its authority in the administration of all public affairs. The only blemish in his character was a tincture of avarice, and even that is greatly extenuated by the laudable and patriotic use which he made of his revenues.—Under his reign, and by the arms of his son Titus, was terminated the war against the Jews. They had been brought under the yoke of Rome by Pompey, who took Jerusalem. Under Augustus they were governed for some time by Herod as viceroy; but the tyranny of his son Archelaus was the cause of his banishment, and the reduction of Judea into the ordinary condition of a Roman province. Rebelling on every slight occasion, Nero had sent Vespasian to reduce them to order, and he had just prepared for the siege of Jerusalem, when he was called to Rome to assume the government of the empire. Titus wished to spare the city, and tried every means to prevail on the Jews to surrender; but in vain; their ruin was decreed by Heaven. After an obstinate blockade of six months, Jerusalem was taken by storm, the temple burnt to ashes, and the city buried in ruins.—The

Roman empire was now in profound peace. Vespasian shut the temple of Janus, and associated Titus in the imperial dignity; he soon after died, universally lamented, at the age of sixty-nine (A. D. 79), after a prosperous reign of nine years and eleven months. His death would have been an irreparable loss to Rome, had he not left such a successor as Titus.

6. The character of Titus was humane, munificent, dignified, and splendid. His short reign was a period of great happiness and prosperity to the empire, and his government a constant example of virtue, justice, and beneficence. In his time happened that dreadful eruption of Vesuvius which overwhelmed the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii; and the public losses from these calamities he repaired by the sacrifice of his fortune and revenues. He died in the third year of his reign, and fortieth of his age; ever to be remembered by that most exalted epithet, *Deliciæ humani generis;* 'The delight of the human race.'

7. Domitian, the brother of Titus, and suspected of murdering him by poison, succeeded to the empire (A. D. 81). He was a vicious and inhuman tyrant. A rebellion in Germany gave him occasion to signalize the barbarity of his disposition; and its consequences were long felt in the sanguinary punishments inflicted under the pretence of justice. The prodigal and voluptuous spirit of this reign was a singular contrast to its tyranny and inhumanity. The people were loaded with insupportable taxes to furnish spectacles and games for their amusement. The successes of Agricola in Britain threw a lustre on the Roman arms, no part of which reflected on the emperor, for he used this eminent commander with the basest ingratitude. After a tyranny of fifteen tedious years, this monster fell at last the victim of assassination, the empress herself conducting the plot for his murder (A. D. 96).

8. Cocceius Nerva, a Cretan by birth, was chosen

emperor by the senate, from respect to the virtues of his character; but too old for the burden of government, and of a temper too placid for the restraint of rooted corruptions and enormities, his reign was weak, inefficient and contemptible. His only act of real merit as a sovereign, was the adoption of the virtuous Trajan as his successor. Nerva died, after a reign of sixteen months (A.D. 98). He was the first emperor who was not a Roman.

9. Ulpius Trajanus, a Spaniard by birth, possessed every talent and every virtue that can adorn a sovereign. He was born of a respectable, but not an ancient family, and his father had been consul. Of great military abilities, and an indefatigable spirit of enterprise, he raised the Roman arms to their ancient splendour, and greatly enlarged the boundaries of the empire. He subdued the Dacians, conquered the Parthians, and brought under subjection Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia Felix. Nor was he less eminent in promoting the happiness of his subjects, and the internal prosperity of the empire. His largesses were humane and munificent. He was the friend and support of the virtuous indigent, and the liberal patron of every useful art and talent. His bounties were supplied by a well-judged economy in his private fortune, and a wise administration of the public finances. In his own life he was a man of simple manners, modest, affable, fond of the familiar intercourse of his friends, and sensible to all the social and benevolent affections; in a word, meriting the surname universally bestowed on him, *Trajanus Optimus.* He died at the age of sixty-three, after a glorious reign of nineteen years (A.D. 118).

10. Ælius Adrianus, nephew of Trajan, and worthy to fill his place, was chosen emperor by the army in the East, and his title was acknowledged by all orders of the state. He adopted a policy different from that of his predecessor; and, judging the limits of the empire too extensive, abandoned all the conquests of Trajan, bounding the eastern provinces by

the Euphrates. He visited in person the whole provinces of the empire, reforming, in his progress, all abuses, relieving his subjects of every oppressive burden, rebuilding the ruined cities, and establishing every where a regular and mild administration under magistrates of approved probity and humanity. He gave a discharge to the indigent debtors of the state, and appointed liberal institutions for the education of the children of the poor. To the talents of an able politician, he joined an excellent taste in the liberal arts; and his reign, which was of twenty-two years' duration, was an era both of public happiness and splendour. In the last year of his life he bequeathed to the empire a double legacy, in adopting and declaring for his immediate successor Titus Aurelius Antoninus, a man of exemplary character and exalted merit, and substituting Annius Verus to succeed upon his death. These were the Antonines, who for forty years ruled the Roman empire with consummate wisdom, ability, and virtue. Adrian died at the age of sixty-two, after a reign of twenty-two years (A.D. 138).

XLIII.

AGE OF THE ANTONINES,* &c.

1. THE happiest reigns furnish the fewest events for the pen of history. Antoninus was the father of his people. He preferred peace to the ambition of conquest; yet in every necessary war the Roman arms had their wonted renown. The British province was enlarged by the conquests of Urbicus, and some formidable rebellions were subdued in Germany, Dacia, and the East. The domestic administration of the sovereign was dignified, splendid, and

* For an excellent and interesting abstract of Roman history from this period until the final overthrow of the empire, see Hereford's abridgment of Gibbon, a work which forms one of the volumes of the *English Classic Library*.

humane. With all the virtues of Numa, his love of religion, peace, and justice, he had the superior advantage of diffusing these blessings over a great portion of the world. He died at the age of seventy-four, after a reign of twenty-two years (A.D. 161).

2. Annius Verus assumed, at his accession, the name of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and he bestowed on his adopted brother Lucius Verus a joint administration of the empire. The former was as eminent for the worth and virtues of his character, as the latter was remarkable for profligacy, meanness, and vice. Marcus Aurelius was attached both by nature and education to the Stoical philosophy, which he has admirably taught and illustrated in his *Meditations;* and his own life was the best commentary on his precepts. The Parthians were repulsed in an attack upon the empire, and a rebellion of the Germans was subdued. In these wars the mean and worthless Verus brought disgrace upon the Roman name in every region where he commanded; but fortunately relieved the empire of its fears by an early death. The residue of the reign of Marcus Aurelius was a continued blessing to his subjects. He reformed the internal policy of the state, regulated the government of the provinces, and visited himself, for the purposes of beneficence, the most distant quarters of his dominions. 'He appeared,' says an ancient author, 'like some benevolent deity, diffusing around him universal peace and happiness.' He died in Pannonia in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and nineteenth of his reign (A.D. 180).

3. Commodus, his most unworthy son, succeeded to the empire on his death. He resembled in character his mother Faustina, a woman infamous for all manner of vice, but who yet had passed with her husband Marcus for a paragon of virtue. Commodus had from his infancy an aversion to every rational and liberal pursuit, and a fond attachment to the sports of the circus and amphitheatre, the hunting of wild beasts, and the combats of boxers

and gladiators. The measures of this reign were as unimportant, as the character of the sovereign was contemptible. His favourite concubine, Marcia, and some of his chief officers, prevented their own destruction by assassinating the tyrant, in the thirty-second year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign (A.D. 193).

4. The prætorian guards gave the empire to Publius Helvius Pertinax, the prefect of the city, a man of mean birth, but who had risen to esteem by his virtues and military talents. He applied himself with zeal to the correction of abuses; but the austerity of his government deprived him of the affections of a corrupted people. He had disappointed the army of a promised reward; and, after a reign of eighty-six days, was murdered in the imperial palace by the same hands which had placed him on the throne.

5. The empire was now put up to auction by the prætorians, and was purchased by Didius Julianus, a rich senator; while Pescennius Niger in Asia, Clodius Albinus in Britain, and Septimius Severus in Illyria, were each chosen emperor by the troops they commanded. Severus marched his army with extraordinary rapidity to Rome; and the prætorians, on his approach, abandoned Didius, who had failed to pay the stipulated price for his elevation, and the senate formally deposed and put him to death, after an anxious reign of sixty days. Severus, now master of Rome, degraded the prætorians, and banished them to the distance of 100 miles from the capital. After a short stay of thirty days, he left Rome to reduce the provinces which had acknowledged the sovereignty of Niger and Albinus; and these two rivals being successively subdued, the one lost his life in battle, and the other fell by his own hands. The administration of Severus was wise and equitable, but tinctured with despotic rigour. It was his purpose to erect the fabric of absolute monarchy, and all his institutions operated with able policy to

that end. He possessed eminent military talents; and it was a glorious boast of his, that having received the empire oppressed with foreign and domestic wars, he left it in profound, universal, and honourable peace. He carried with him into Britain his two sons Caracalla and Geta, whose unpromising dispositions clouded his latter days. In this war the Caledonians under Fingal are said to have defeated, on the banks of the Carron, *Caracul*, the son of the king of the world. Severus died at York, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, after a reign of eighteen years (A.D. 211).

6. On the death of Severus, Caracalla and Geta were proclaimed emperors of Rome, but the mutual hatred, which had existed from their earliest youth, was increased by their association in the empire; and the former, with brutal inhumanity, caused his brother to be openly murdered in the arms of his mother Julia; and about 20,000 persons are computed to have perished under the vague appellation of Geta's friends. His reign, which was of six years' duration, and one continued series of atrocities, was at length terminated by assassination (A.D. 217).

7. Those disorders in the empire which began with Commodus continued for about a century, till the accession of Diocletian. That interval was filled by the reigns of Heliogabalus, Alexander Severus, Maximin, Gordian, Decius, Gallus, Valerianus, Gallienus, Claudius, Aurelianus, Tacitus, Probus, and Carus; a period of which the annals furnish neither amusement nor useful information.* The single exception is the reign of Alexander Severus, a mild, beneficent, and enlightened prince, whose character shines the more from the contrast of those who preceded and followed him.

8. Diocletian began his reign A.D. 284, and soon distinguished himself as a prince of the greatest political talent. 'Convinced that the abilities of a

* For the history of these reigns, see Hereford's Gibbon, chap. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

single man were inadequate to the defence of the empire, he introduced a new system of administration, dividing the empire into four governments, and associating with himself three colleagues in the exercise of supreme power; and it was his intention that the same joint administration should be ever afterwards continued. The two elder princes were to be distinguished by the title of Augusti; and these were to select for their support two, who were to be honoured with the rank of Cæsar; and the latter were, in turn, to rise to the station and attain the privileges of the former.'* Maximian shared with Diocletian the title of Augustus; and Galerius and Constantius were declared Cæsars. Each had his separate department or province, all nominally supreme, but in reality under the direction of the superior talents and authority of Diocletian; an unwise policy, which depended for its efficacy on individual ability alone. Diocletian and Maximian, trusting to the continuance of that order in the empire which their vigour had established, both retired from the sovereignty on the same day, and left the government in the hands of the Cæsars. Galerius and Constantius assumed the title of Augustus; and to the former it was reserved to nominate the two new Cæsars, and complete the system of imperial government. Galerius promoted Maximin and Severus to the rank of Cæsars; Constantius died soon after in Britain, and his son Constantine was proclaimed emperor by the army at York. Galerius refused to acknowledge Constantine as emperor, but allowed him the title of Cæsar, and conferred that of Augustus on Severus. Maximian, however, having once more resumed the purple, engaged, defeated, and put Severus to death; and having bestowed on Constantine his daughter in marriage, he thus invested him with a double title to empire. On the death of Maximian and Galerius,

* Gibbon.

Constantine had no other competitor than Maxentius, the son of the former, and the contest between them was decided by the sword. Maxentius fell in battle, and Constantine remained sole master of the empire.

9. The administration of Constantine was, in the beginning of his reign, mild, equitable, and politic. Though zealously attached to the Christian faith, he made no violent innovations on the religion of the state. He introduced order and economy into the civil government, and repressed every species of oppression and corruption. But his natural temper was severe and cruel; and the latter part of his reign was as much deformed by intolerant zeal and sanguinary rigour, as the former had been remarkable for equity and benignity. From this unfavourable change of character, he lost the affections of his subjects: and, from a feeling probably of reciprocal disgust, he removed the seat of the Roman empire to Byzantium, now termed Constantinople. The court followed the sovereign; the opulent proprietors were attended by their slaves and retainers; Rome was in a few years greatly depopulated, and the new capital swelled at once to enormous magnitude. It was characterized by Eastern splendour, luxury, and voluptuousness; and the cities of Greece were despoiled for its embellishment. Of the internal policy of the empire we shall treat in the next section. In an expedition against the Persians, Constantine died at Nicomedia, in the thirtieth year of his reign, and sixty-third of his age (A.D. 337).* In the time of Constantine the Goths had made several irruptions on the empire, and, though repulsed and beaten, began gradually to encroach on the provinces.

* For the character of Constantine, see Hereford's Gibbon, p. 125.

XLIV.

STATE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT THE TIME OF CONSTANTINE.—HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. In lieu of the ancient republican distinctions, which were founded chiefly on personal merit, a rigid subordination of rank and office now went through all the orders of the state. The magistrates were divided into three classes, distinguished by the unmeaning titles of, 1. The Illustrious; 2. The Respectable; 3. The *Clarissimi*. The epithet of Illustrious was bestowed on, 1. The consuls and patricians; 2. The prætorian prefects, with those of Rome and Constantinople; 3. The masters-general of the cavalry and infantry; 4. The seven ministers of the palace, who exercised their functions about the person of the emperor. From the reign of Diocletian the consuls had been created by the sole authority of the emperor: their dignity was inefficient; they had no appropriate function in the state, and their names served only to give the legal date to the year. The dignity of patrician was not, as in ancient times, an hereditary distinction, but was bestowed, as a title of honour, by the emperor on his favourites. From the time of the abolition of the prætorian bands by Constantine, the prætorian prefects had been deprived of all military command, and reduced to the station of useful and obedient ministers. They were four in number, and to their care was intrusted the civil administration of the four departments of the empire. These were, the East, Illyria, Italy, and the Gauls. They had the supreme administration of justice and of the finances, the power of supplying all the inferior magistracies in their district, and an appellative jurisdiction from all its tribunals. Independent of their authority, Rome and Constantinople had each its own prefect, who presided over the

senate, and was the chief magistrate of the city; he received appeals from the distance of 100 miles from his respective city, and was the acknowledged source of all municipal authority. In the second class, the Respectable, were the proconsuls of Asia, Achaia, and Africa, and the military counts and dukes (*comites* and *duces*), or generals of the imperial armies. The third class, *Clarissimi*, comprehended the inferior governors and magistrates of the provinces, responsible to the prefects and their deputies. 'The supreme jurisdiction which had been exercised by the prætorian prefects over the armies of the empire, was transferred by Constantine to two masters-general, the one for cavalry and the other for infantry. Their number was afterwards increased to eight, and these were appointed to the four important frontiers of the Rhine, the Upper and Lower Danube, and the Euphrates. Under their orders, thirty-five military commanders were stationed in the provinces. All these provincial generals were *dukes;* but only ten were dignified with the rank of counts; the dukes and counts exercised over the troops an authority independent of the magistrates; but they were prohibited from interfering with the administration of justice or the revenue.'*

2. The intercourse between the court and provinces was maintained by the construction of roads, and the institution of regular posts or couriers; under which denomination were ranked the numberless spies of government, whose duty was to convey all sort of intelligence from the remotest quarters of the empire to its chief seat. Every institution was calculated to support the fabric of de potism. Torture was employed for the discovery of crimes. Taxes and impositions of every nature were prescribed and levied by the sole authority of the emperor. The quantity and rate were fixed by a *census* made over all the provinces, and part was generally paid in

* Hereford's Gibbon, p. 122.

money, part in the produce of the lands; a burden frequently found so grievous as to prompt to the neglect of agriculture. Every object of merchandise and manufacture was likewise highly taxed. Subsidies, moreover, were exacted from all the cities, under the name of free gifts, on various occasions of public concern; as the accession of an emperor, his consulate, the birth of a prince, a victory over the barbarians, or any other event of similar importance.

3. None of the innovations of Constantine were so fatal to the empire as the impolitic distinction which he made between the troops stationed in the distant provinces and those in the heart of the empire. The latter, termed *Palatines*, enjoyed a higher pay, and more peculiar favour, and, having less employment, spent their time in idleness and luxury; while the former, termed the *Borderers*, who, in fact, had the care of the empire, and were exposed to perpetual hard service, had, with an inferior reward, the mortification of feeling themselves regarded as of meaner rank than their fellow-soldiers. Constantine likewise, from a timid policy of guarding against mutinies of the troops, reduced the legion from its ancient complement of 5,000, 6,000 7,000, and 8,000, to 1,000 or 1,500, and debased the body of the army by the intermixture of Scythians, Goths, and Germans.

4. This immense mass of heterogeneous parts, which internally laboured with the seeds of dissolution and corruption, was kept together for some time by the vigorous exertion of despotic authority. The fabric was splendid and august; but it wanted both that energy of constitution and that real dignity which, in former times, it derived from the exercise of heroic and patriotic virtues.

5. Constantine, with a destructive policy, had divided the empire among five princes, three of them his sons, and two nephews; but Constantius, the youngest of the sons, finally got rid of all his

competitors, and ruled the empire alone with a weak and impotent sceptre. A variety of domestic broils, and mutinies of the troops against their generals, had left the western frontier to the mercy of the barbarian nations. The Franks, Saxons, Alemanni, and Sarmatians, laid waste all the fine countries watered by the Rhine; and the Persians made dreadful incursions on the provinces of the East. Constantius indolently wasted his time in theological controversies, but was prevailed on by his empress Eusebia to adopt one prudent measure, the appointment of his cousin Julian to the dignity of Cæsar.

6. Julian possessed many heroic qualities, and his mind was formed by nature for the sovereignty of a great people; but educated at Athens in the schools of the Platonic philosophy, he had unfortunately conceived a rooted antipathy to the doctrines of Christianity. With every talent of a general, and possessing the confidence and affection of his troops, he once more restored the glory of the Roman arms, and successfully repressed the invasions of the barbarians. His victories excited the jealousy of Constantius, who meanly resolved to remove from his command the better part of his troops. The consequence was a declaration of the army, that it was their choice that Julian should be their emperor. Constantius escaped the ignominy that awaited him by dying at this critical juncture, and Julian was immediately acknowledged sovereign of the Roman empire. Constantius died at Mopsucrene in Cilicia in the forty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign (A.D. 361).

7. The reformation of civil abuses formed the first object of Julian's attention; which he next turned to the reformation, as he thought, of religion, by the suppression of Christianity. He began by reforming the Pagan theology, and sought to raise the character of its priests, by inculcating purity of life and sanctity of morals; thus bearing involuntary testi-

mony to the superior excellence, in those respects, of that religion which he laboured to abolish. Without persecuting, he attacked the Christians by the more dangerous policy of treating them with contempt, and removing them, as visionaries, from all employments of public trust. He refused them the benefit of the laws to decide their differences, because their religion forbade all dissensions; and they were debarred the studies of literature and philosophy, which they could not learn but from Pagan authors. He was himself as a Pagan, the slave of the most bigotted superstition, believing in omens and auguries, and fancying himself favoured with an actual intercourse with the gods and goddesses. To avenge the injuries which the empire had sustained from the Persians, Julian marched into the heart of Asia, and was for some time in the train of conquest, when, in a fatal engagement, though crowned with victory, he was slain, at the age of thirty-one, after a reign of three years (A.D. 363).

8. The Roman army was dispirited by the death of its commander. They chose for their emperor, Jovian, a captain of the domestic guards, and purchased a free retreat from the dominions of Persia by the ignominious surrender of five provinces, which had been ceded by a former sovereign to Galerius. The short reign of Jovian, a period of seven months, was mild and equitable. He favoured Christianity, and restored its votaries to all their privileges as subjects. He died suddenly at the age of thirty-three.

9. Valentinian was chosen emperor by the army on the death of Jovian; a man of obscure birth, and severe manners, but of considerable military talents. He associated with himself in the empire his brother Valens, to whom he gave the dominion of the eastern provinces, reserving to himself the western. The Persians under Sapor, were making inroads on the former, and the latter was subject to continual invasion from the northern barbarians.

successfully repelled by Valentinian in many battles; and his domestic administration was wise, equitable, and politic. The Christian religion was favoured by the emperor, though not promoted by the persecution of its adversaries; a contrast to the conduct of his brother Valens, who, intemperately supporting the Arian heresy, set the whole provinces in a flame, and drew a swarm of invaders upon the empire in the guise of friends and allies, who in the end entirely subverted it. These were the Goths, who, migrating from Scandinavia, had, in the second century, settled on the banks of the Palus Mæotis, and thence gradually extended their territory. In the reign of Valens they took possession of Dacia, and were known by the distinct appellation of Ostrogoths and Visigoths, or Eastern and Western Goths; a remarkable people, and whose manners, customs, government, and laws, are afterwards to be particularly noted.

10. Valentinian died on an expedition against the Alemanni, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, after having reigned nearly twelve years. He was succeeded in the empire of the West by Gratian, his eldest son, a boy of sixteen years of age (A.D. 375). Valens, in the East, was the scourge of his people. The Huns, a new race of barbarians, of Tartar or Siberian origin, now poured down on the provinces both of the west and east. The Goths, comparatively a civilized people, fled before them. The Visigoths, who were first attacked, requested protection from the empire, and Valens imprudently gave them a settlement in Thrace. The Ostrogoths made the same request, and, on refusal, forced their way into the same province. Valens gave them battle at Adrianople: his army was defeated, and he himself slain in the engagement (A.D. 378). The Goths, unresisted, ravaged Achaia and Pannonia.

11. Gratian, a prince of good dispositions, but of little energy of character, assumed Theodosius as

his colleague, who, on the early death of Gratian, and minority of his son Valentinian II., governed with great ability both the Eastern and Western empire. The character of Theodosius, deservedly surnamed *the Great*, was worthy of the best ages of the Roman state. He successfully repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and secured, by wholesome laws, the prosperity of his people. He died, after a reign of eighteen years, assigning to his sons, Arcadius and Honorius, the separate sovereignties of East and West (A.D. 395).

XLV.

PROGRESS OF THE CHRISTIAN RELIGION, FROM ITS INSTITUTION TO THE EXTINCTION OF PAGANISM IN THE REIGN OF THEODOSIUS.

1. THE reign of Theodosius was signalized by the downfall of the Pagan superstition, and the full establishment of the Christian religion in the Roman empire. This great revolution of opinions is highly worthy of attention, and naturally induces a retrospect to the condition of the Christian church from its institution down to this period.

It has been frequently remarked, because it is an obvious truth, that the concurrence of circumstances at the time of our Saviour's birth was such as, while a divine revelation seemed to be then more peculiarly needed, the state of the world was remarkably favourable for the extensive dissemination of the doctrines it conveyed. The union of so many nations under one power, and the extension of civilization, were favourable to the progress of a religion which prescribed universal charity and benevolence. The gross superstitions of Paganism, and its tendency to corrupt instead of purifying the morals, contributed to explode its influence with every thinking mind. Even the prevalent philoso-

phy of the times, Epicurism, more easily understood than the refinements of the Platonists, and more grateful than the severities of the Stoics, tended to degrade human nature to the level of the brute creation. The Christian religion, thus necessary for the reformation of the world, found its chief partisans in those who were the friends of virtue, and its enemies among the votaries of vice.

2. The persecution which the Christians underwent from the Romans has been deemed an exception to that spirit of toleration they shewed to the religions of other nations: but they were tolerating only to those whose theologies were not hostile to their own. The religion of the Romans was interwoven with their political constitution. The zeal of the Christians aiming at the suppression of all idolatry, was not unnaturally regarded as dangerous to the state; and hence they were the object of hatred and persecution. In the first century, the Christian church suffered deeply under Nero and Domitian; yet those persecutions had no tendency to check the progress of its doctrines.

3. It is matter of question what was the form of the primitive church, and the nature of its government; and on this head much difference of opinion obtains, not only between the Catholics and Protestants, but between the different classes of the latter, as the Lutherans and Calvinists. It is moreover an opinion, that our Saviour and his apostles, confining their precepts to the pure doctrines of religion, have left all Christian societies to regulate their frame and government in the manner best suited to the civil constitutions of the countries in which they are established.

4. In the second century, the books of the New Testament were collected into a volume by the elder fathers of the church, and received as a canon of faith. The Old Testament had been translated from the Hebrew into Greek, by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, 284 years before Christ. The early

church suffered much from an absurd endeavour of the more learned of its votaries to reconcile its doctrines to the tenets of the Pagan philosophers; hence the sects of the Gnostics and Ammonians, and the Platonizing Christians. The Greek churches began in the second century to form provincial associations, and establish general rules of government and discipline. Assemblies were held, termed *Synodoi* and *Concilia*, over which a metropolitan presided. A short time after arose the superior order of Patriarch, presiding over a large district of the Christian world; and a subordination taking place even among these, the Bishop of Rome was acknowledged the chief of the Patriarchs. Persecution still attended the early church, even under those excellent princes, Trajan, Adrian, and the Antonines; and in the reign of Severus, the whole provinces of the empire were stained with the blood of the martyrs.

5. The third century was more favourable to the progress of Christianity and the tranquillity of its disciples. In those times it suffered less from the civil arm than from the pens of the Pagan philosophers, Porphyry, Philostratus, &c.; but these attacks called forth the zeal and talents of many able defenders, as Origen, Dionysius, and Cyprian. A part of the Gauls, Germany, and Britain, received in this century the light of the gospel.

6. In the fourth century, the Christian church was alternately persecuted and cherished by the Roman emperors. Among its oppressors we rank Diocletian, Galerius, and Julian. Among its favourers, Constantine and his sons, Valentinian, Valens, Gratian, and the excellent Theodosius, in whose reign the Pagan superstition came to its final period.

7. From the age of Numa to the reign of Gratian, the Romans preserved the regular succession of the several sacerdotal colleges, the Pontiffs, Augurs, Vestals, *Flamines*, *Salii*, &c., whose authority, though weakened in the latter ages, was still protected by

the laws. Even the Christian emperors held, like their Pagan predecessors, the office of *Pontifex Maximus*. Gratian was the first who refused that ancient dignity, as a profanation. In the time of Theodosius, the cause of Christianity and of Paganism was solemnly debated in the Roman senate between Ambrose, archbishop of Milan, the champion of the former, and Symmachus, a senator and celebrated orator, the defender of the latter. The cause of Christianity was triumphant; and the senate issued its decree for the abolition of Paganism, whose downfall in the capital was soon followed by its extinction in the provinces. Theodosius, with able policy, permitted no persecution of the ancient religion, which perished with the more rapidity that its fall was gentle and unresisted.

8. But the Christian church exhibited a superstition in some respects little less irrational than Polytheism, in the worship of saints and relics; and many novel tenets, unfounded in the precepts of our Saviour and his apostles, were manifestly borrowed from the Pagan schools. The doctrines of the Platonic philosophy seem to have led to the notions of an intermediate state of purification, celibacy of the priests, ascetic mortifications, penances, and monastic seclusion.

XLVI.

EXTINCTION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE WEST.

1. The prosperity of the Roman empire expired with the life of Theodosius; but the memory of his virtues secured to his infant sons, Arcadius and Honorius, an undisputed succession as the emperors of the East and West. Arcadius was then about eighteen, and Honorius about eleven years of age; to the former was assigned the Eastern empire, and to the latter the Western. In the reigns of these princes, the barbarian nations established

themselves in the frontier provinces both of the East and West. Theodosius had committed the government to Rufinus and Stilicho during the nonage of his sons; and their fatal dissensions gave every advantage to the enemies of the empire. The Huns, actually invited by Rufinus, overspread Armenia, Cappadocia, and Syria. The Goths, under Alaric, ravaged to the borders of Italy, and laid waste Achaia to the Peloponnesus. Stilicho, an able general, made a noble stand against these invaders; but his plans were frustrated by the machi nations of his rivals, and the weakness of Arcadius, who purchased an ignominious peace, by ceding to Alaric the whole of Greece.

2. Alaric, now styled king of the Visigoths, prepared to add Italy to his new dominions. He passed the Alps, and was carrying all before him, when, amused by the politic Stilicho with the prospect of a new cession of territory, he was taken at unawares, and defeated by that general, then commanding the armies of Honorius. The emperor triumphantly celebrated, on that occasion, the *eternal* defeat of the Gothic nation; an eternity bounded by the lapse of a few months. In this interval, a torrent of the Goths breaking down upon Germany, forced the nations whom they dispossessed, the Suevi, Alani, and Vandals, to precipitate themselves upon Italy. They joined their arms to those of Alaric, who, thus reinforced, determined to overwhelm Rome. The policy of Stilicho made him change his purpose on the promise of 4000 pounds weight of gold; a promise repeatedly broken by Honorius, and its violation finally revenged by Alaric, by the sack and plunder of the city (A.D. 410). With generous magnanimity, he was sparing of the lives of the vanquished, and, with singular liberality of spirit, anxious to preserve every ancient edifice from destruction.

3. Alaric, preparing now for the conquest of Sicily and Africa, died at this era of his highest

glory; and Honorius, instead of profiting by this event to recover his lost provinces, made a treaty with his successor Ataulfus, gave him in marriage his sister Placidia, and secured his friendship by ceding to him a portion of Spain, while a great part of what remained had before been occupied by the Vandals. He allowed soon after to the Burgundians a just title to their conquests in Gaul. Thus the Western empire was by degrees mouldering from under the dominion of its ancient masters.

4. In the East, the mean and dissolute Arcadius died in the year 408, leaving that empire to his infant son Theodosius II., whose sister Pulcheria swayed the sceptre with much prudence and ability; and the weakness of her brother allowed her government to be of forty years' continuance. Honorius died in the year 423. The laws of Arcadius and Honorius are, with a few exceptions, remarkable for their wisdom and equity; a singular phenomenon, considering the personal character of those princes, and evincing at least that they employed some able ministers.

5. The Vandals, under Genseric, subdued the Roman province in Africa. The Huns, in the East, extended their conquests from the borders of China to the Baltic sea. Under Attila they laid waste Mœsia and Thrace; and Theodosius II., after a mean attempt to murder the barbarian general, ingloriously submitted to pay him an annual tribute. It was in this crisis of universal decay, that the Britons implored the Romans to defend them against the Picts and Scots, but received for answer, that they had nothing to bestow on them but compassion. The Britons, in despair, sought aid from the Saxons and Angles, who seized, as their property, the country they were invited to protect, and founded, in the fifth and sixth centuries, the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy. (See Part II. Sect. XII. § 5.)

6. Attila, with an army of 500,000 men, threatened the total destruction of the empire. He was

ably opposed by Ætius, general of Valentinian III., now emperor of the West, who was himself shut up in Rome by the arms of the barbarian, and at length compelled to purchase a peace. On the death of Attila, his dominions were dismembered by his sons, whose dissensions gave temporary relief to the falling empire.

7. After Valentinian III. we have in the West a succession of princes, or rather names; for the events of their reigns merit no detail. In the reign of Romulus, surnamed Augustulus, the son of Orestes, the empire of the West came to a final period. Odoacer, prince of the Heruli, subdued Italy, and spared the life of Augustulus, on the condition of his resigning the throne (A.D. 476). From the building of Rome to this era, the extinction of the Western empire, is a period of 1224 years.

8. We may reduce to one ultimate cause the various circumstances that produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric. The ruin of the Roman empire was the inevitable consequence of its greatness. The extension of its dominion relaxed the vigour of its frame: the vices of the conquered nations infected the victorious legions, and foreign luxuries corrupted their commanders; selfish interest supplanted the patriotic affection; the martial spirit was purposely debased by the emperors, who dreaded its effects on their own power; and the whole mass, thus weakened and enervated, fell an easy prey to the torrent of barbarians which overwhelmed it.

9. The Herulian dominion in Italy was of short duration. Theodoric, prince of the Ostrogoths (afterwards deservedly surnamed *the Great*), obtained permission of Zeno, emperor of the East, to attempt the recovery of Italy, and a promise of its sovereignty as the reward of his success. The whole nation of the Ostrogoths attended the standard of their prince, and Theodoric, victorious in repeated engagements, at length compelled Odoacer to sur-

render all Italy to the conqueror. The Romans had tasted of happiness under the government of Odoacer, and it was increased under the dominion of Theodoric, who possessed every talent and virtue of a sovereign. His equity and clemency rendered him a blessing to his subjects: he allied himself with all the surrounding nations, the Franks, Visigoths, Burgundians, and Vandals; and he left a peaceable sceptre to his grandson Athalaric, during whose infancy his mother Amalasuntha governed with such admirable wisdom and moderation, as left her subjects no real cause of regret for the loss of her father.

10. While such was the state of Gothic Italy, the empire of the East was under the government of Justinian, a prince of mean ability, vain, capricious, and tyrannical. Yet the Roman name rose for a while from its abasement by the merit of his generals. Belisarius was the support of his throne, yet to him he behaved with the most shocking ingratitude. The Persians were at this time the most formidable enemies of the empire, under their sovereigns Cabades and Cosrhoes; and from the latter, a most able prince, Justinian meanly purchased a peace, by a cession of territory, and an enormous tribute in gold. The civil factions of Constantinople, arising from the most contemptible of causes, the disputes of the performers in the circus and amphitheatre, threatened to hurl Justinian from the throne, had they not been fortunately composed by the arms and the policy of Belisarius. This great general overwhelmed the Vandal sovereignty of Africa, and recovered that province to the empire. He wrested Italy from its Gothic sovereign, and once more restored it for a short space to the dominion of its ancient masters.

11. Italy was once more subdued by the Goths, under the heroic Totila, who besieged and took the city of Rome, but forbore to destroy it at the request of Belisarius. The fortunes of this great man were

now in the wane. He was compelled to evacuate Italy; and, on his return to Constantinople, his long services were repaid with disgrace. He was superseded in the command of the armies by the eunuch Narses, who defeated Totila in a decisive engagement, in which the Gothic prince was slain. Narses governed Italy with great ability for thirteen years, when he was ungratefully recalled by Justin II., the successor of Justinian. He invited the Lombards to avenge his injuries; and this new tribe of invaders overran and conquered the country (A.D. 568).

XLVII.

OF THE ORIGIN, MANNERS, AND CHARACTER OF THE GOTHIC NATIONS, BEFORE THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. The history and manners of the Gothic nations are curious objects of inquiry, from their influence on the constitutions and national character of most of the modern kingdoms of Europe. As the present inhabitants of these kingdoms are a mixed race, compounded of the Goths and of the nations whom they subdued, the laws, manners, and institutions of the modern kingdoms are the result of this conjunction; and in so far as these are different from the usages prevalent before this intermixture, they are, in all probability, to be traced from the ancient manners and institutions of those northern tribes. We purpose to consider, 1. The original character of the Gothic nations; and, 2. The change of their manners on their establishment in the Roman empire.

2. The Scandinavian chronicles attribute to the ancient inhabitants of that country an Asiatic origin, and inform us that the Goths were a colony of Scythians, who migrated thither from the banks of the Black Sea and the Caspian: but these chronicles

do not fix the period of this migration, which some later writers suppose to have been 1000 years, and others only seventy, before the Christian era. Odin, the chief deity of the Scandinavians, was the god of the Scythians. Sigga, a Scythian prince, is said to have undertaken a distant expedition; and, after subduing several of the Sarmatian tribes, to have penetrated into the northern parts of Germany, and thence into Scandinavia. He assumed the honours of divinity, and the title of Odin, his national god. He conquered Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, and gave wise and salutary laws to the nations he had subdued by his arms.

3. The agreement in manners between the Scythians and the ancient Scandinavian nations is strongly corroborative of the accounts given in the northern chronicles of the identity of their origin. The description of the manners of the Germans by Tacitus (though this people was probably not of Scythian, but of Celtic origin) may, in many particulars, be applied to the ancient nations of Scandinavia; and the same description coincides remarkably with the account given by Herodotus of the manners of the Scythians. Their life was spent in hunting, pasturage, and predatory war. Their dress, their weapons, their food, their respect for their women, their religious worship, were the same. They despised learning, and had no other records for many ages than the songs of their bards.

4. The theology of the Scandinavians was most intimately connected with their manners. They held three great principles or fundamental doctrines of religion: 'To serve the Supreme Being with prayer and sacrifice; to do no wrong or unjust action; and to be intrepid in fight.' These principles are the key to the *Edda*, or sacred book, of the Scandinavians, which, though it contains the substance of a very ancient religion, is not itself a work of high antiquity, being compiled in the thirteenth century by Snorro Sturleson, supreme judge of Ice-

land. Odin, characterized as the Terrible and Severe God, the Father of Carnage, the Avenger, is the principal deity of the Scandinavians; from whose union with Frea, the heavenly mother, sprung various subordinate divinities; as Thor, who perpetually wars against Loke and his evil giants, who envy the power of Odin, and seek to destroy his works. Among the inferior deities are the Virgins of the Valhalla, whose office is to minister to the heroes in paradise. The favourites of Odin are all who die in battle, or, what is equally meritorious, by their own hand. The timid wretch, who allows himself to perish by disease or age, is unworthy of the joys of paradise. These joys are, fighting, ceaseless slaughter, and drinking beer out of the skulls of their enemies, with a renovation of life, to furnish a perpetuity of the same pleasures.

5. As the Scandinavians believed this world to be the work of some superior intelligences, so they held all nature to be constantly under the regulation of an almighty will and power, and subject to a fixed and unalterable destiny. These notions had a wonderful effect on the national manners, and on the conduct of individuals. The Scandinavian placed his sole delight in war: he entertained an absolute contempt of danger and of death, and his glory was estimated by the number he had slain in battle. The death-song of *Regner Lodbrok*, who comforts himself in his last agonies by recounting all the acts of carnage he had committed in his life-time, is a faithful picture of the Scandinavian character.

6. We have remarked the great similarity of the manners of the Scandinavians and those of the ancient Germans. These nations seem, however, to have had a different origin. The Germans, as well as the Gauls, were branches of that great original nation termed *Celtæ*, who inhabited most of the countries of Europe to the south of the Baltic, before they were invaded by the northern tribes from Scandinavia. The Celtæ were all of the Druidical reli-

gion; a system which, though different from the belief and worship of the Scandinavians, is founded nearly on the same principles; and the Goths, in their progress, intermixing with the Germans, could not fail to adopt, in part, the notions of a kindred religion. Druidism acknowledged a God that delighted in bloodshed; it taught the immortality of the soul, and inculcated the contempt of danger and of death: 'Ignavum redituræ parcere vitæ.' Tacitus remarks of the ancient Germans, that they had neither temples nor idols. The open air was the temple of the divinity, and a consecrated grove the appropriated place for prayer and sacrifice, which none but the priests were allowed to enter. The chief sacrifices were human victims, most probably the prisoners taken in war. The Druids heightened the sanctity of their character by concealing the mysteries of their worship. They had the highest influence over the minds of the people, and thus found it easy to conjoin a civil authority with the sacerdotal; a policy which in the end led to the destruction of the Druidical system; for the Romans found no other way of securing their conquests over any of the Celtic nations than by exterminating the Druids.

7. Whatever difference of manners there may have been among the various nations or tribes of Gothic origin, the great features of their character appear to have been the same. Nature, education, and prevailing habits, all concurred to form them for an intrepid and conquering people. Their bodily frame invigorated by the climate they inhabited, ever inured to danger and fatigue, war their habitual occupation, believing in an unalterable destiny, and taught by their religion, that a heroic sacrifice of life gave certain assurance of eternal happiness; how could a race of men so characterized fail to be the conquerors of the world?

XLVIII.

OF THE MANNERS, LAWS, AND GOVERNMENT OF THE GOTHIC NATIONS, AFTER THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. It has been erroneously imagined, that the same ferocity of manners which distinguished the Goths in their original seats, attended their successors in their new establishments in the provinces of the Roman empire. Modern authors have given a currency to this false idea. Voltaire, in describing the middle ages, paints the Goths in all the characters of horror; as 'a troop of hungry wolves, foxes, and tigers, driving before them the scattered timid herds, and involving all in ruin and desolation.' The accounts of historians most worthy of credit will dissipate this injurious prejudice, and shew these northern nations in a more favourable point of view, as not unworthy to be the successors of the Romans.

2. Before the settlement in the southern provinces of Europe, the Goths were no longer idolaters, but Christians; and their morality was suitable to the religion they professed. Salvianus, bishop of Marseilles, in the fifth century, draws a parallel between their manners and those of the Romans, highly to the credit of the former. Grotius, in his publication of Procopius and Jornandes, remarks, as a strong testimony to their honourable character as a nation, that no province once subdued by the Goths ever voluntarily withdrew itself from their government

3. It is not possible to produce a more beautiful picture of an excellent administration than that of the Gothic monarchy in Italy under Theodoric the Great. Although master of the country by conquest, he was regarded by his subjects with the affection of a native sovereign. He retained the Roman laws, and as nearly as possible the ancient political regu-

lations. In supplying all civil offices of state, he preferred the native Romans. It was his care to preserve every monument of the ancient grandeur of the empire, and to embellish the cities by new works of beauty and utility. In the imposition and levying of taxes, he shewed the most humane indulgence, on every occasion of scarcity or calamity. His laws were dictated by the most enlightened prudence and benevolence, and framed on that principle which he nobly inculcated in his instructions to the Roman senate, 'Benigni principis est, non tam delicta velle punire, quam tollere.' The historians of the times delight in recounting the examples of his munificence and humanity. Partial as he was to the Arian heresy, many even of the Catholic fathers have done the most ample justice to his merits, acknowledging that, under his reign, the church enjoyed a high measure of prosperity. Such was Theodoric the Great, who is justly termed by Sidonius Apollinaris, 'Romanæ decus columenque gentis.'

4. But a single example could not warrant a general inference with regard to the merits of a whole people. The example of Theodoric is not single. If it does not find a complete parallel, it is at least nearly approached to, in the similar characters of Alaric, Amalasuntha, and Totila. Alaric, compelled by his enemy's breach of faith to revenge himself by the sack of Rome, shewed even in that revenge a noble example of humanity. No blood was shed without necessity; the churches were inviolable asylums; the honour of the women was preserved; the treasures of the city were saved from plunder. Amalasuntha, the daughter of Theodoric, repaired to her subjects the loss of her father, by the equity and wisdom of her administration. She trained her son to the study of literature and of every polite accomplishment, as the best means of reforming and enlightening his people. Totila, twice master of Rome, which he won by his arms after an obstinate resistance, imitated the example of Alaric in his

clemency to the vanquished, and in his care to preserve every remnant of ancient magnificence from destruction. He restored the senate to its authority; he adorned Rome with useful edifices, regulated its internal policy, and took a noble pride in reviving the splendour and dignity of the empire. 'Habitavit cum Romanis,' says a contemporary author, 'tanquam patèr cum filiis.'

5. The stem of the Gothic nation divided itself into two great branches, the Ostrogoths, who remained in Pannonia, and the Westrogoths or Visigoths, so termed from their migrating thence to the west of Europe. Italy was possessed by the latter under Alaric, and by the former under Theodoric. The Visigoths, after the death of Alaric, withdrew into Gaul, and obtained from Honorius the province of Aquitaine, of which Thoulouse was the capital. When expelled from that province by the Franks, they crossed the Pyrenees, and, settling in Spain, made Toledo the capital of their kingdom. The race of the Visigoth princes was termed the *Balti*, as that of the Ostrogoths the *Amali*. The Ostrogoths enforced in their dominions the observance of the Roman laws; the Visigoths adhered to a code compiled by their own sovereigns, and founded on the ancient manners and usages of their nations. From this code, therefore, we may derive much information relative to the genius and character of this ancient people.

6. It is enacted by the *Laws of the Visigoths* that no judge should decide in any law-suit, unless he finds in that book a law applicable to the case. All causes that fall not under this description are reserved for the decision of the sovereign. The penal laws are severe, but tempered with great equity. No punishment can affect the heirs of the criminal; 'omnia crimina suos sequantur auctores—ille solus judicetur culpabilis qui culpanda commiserit, et crimen cum illo qui fecerit moriatur.' Death was the punishment of the murder of a freeman, and perpetual infamy of

the murder of a slave.—Pecuniary fines were enacted for various subordinate offences, according to their measure of criminality.—An adulterer was delivered in bondage to the injured husband; and the free woman who had committed adultery with a married man became the slave of his wife.—No physician was allowed to visit a female patient, but in the presence of her nearest kindred.—The *Lex talionis* was in great observance for such injuries as admitted of it. It was even carried so far, that the incendiary of a house was burnt alive.—The trials by judicial combat, by ordeal, and by the judgment of God, which were in frequent use among the Franks and Normans, had no place among the Visigoths.—Montesquieu has erroneously asserted, that in all the Gothic nations it was usual to judge the litigants by the law of their own country; the Roman by the Roman law, the Frank by that of the Franks, the Aleman by that of the Alemans. On the contrary, the Visigoth code prohibits the laws of all other nations within the territories of that people; 'Nolumus sive Romanis legibus, sive alienis institutionibus, amplius convexari.' The laws of the Franks and Lombards are remarkable for their wisdom and judicious policy.

7. The government of the Goths, after their settlement in the Roman provinces, was monarchical; and, at first elective, became afterwards hereditary; the sovereign on his death-bed appointing his successors, with the advice or consent of his grandees. Illegitimacy did not disqualify from succession or nomination to the throne.

8. The dukes and counts were the chief officers under the Gothic government. The duke (*Dux exercitus*) was the commander-in-chief of the troops of the province; the count (*Comes*) was the highest civil magistrate; but these officers frequently intermixed their functions; the count being empowered, on sudden emergencies, to assume a military command, and the duke, on some occasions, warranted to exercise

judicial authority. In general, however, their departments were distinct. Of *Comites* there were various orders, with distinct official powers; as, *Comes cubiculi*, chamberlain; *Comes stabuli*, constable, &c. These various officers were the *proceres* or grandees of the kingdom, by whose advice the sovereign conducted himself in important matters of government, or in the nomination of his successor: but we do not find that they had a voice in the framing of laws, or in the imposition of taxes; and the prince himself had the sole nomination to all offices of government, magistracies, and dignities.

XLIX.

METHOD OF STUDYING ANCIENT HISTORY.

1. A GENERAL and concise view of ancient history may be acquired by the perusal of a very few books; as that part of the *Cours d'Etude* of the Abbé Condillac which regards the history of the nations of antiquity; the Elements of General History by the Abbé Millot, part I.; the Epitome of Turselline, with the Notes of L'Agneau, part I.; or the excellent *Compendium Historiæ Universalis*, by Professor Offerhaus of Groningen. The two first of these works have the merit of uniting a spirit of reflection with a judicious selection of events. The notes of L'Agneau to the Epitome of Turselline, contain a great store of geographical and biographical information; and the work of Offerhaus is peculiarly valuable, as uniting sacred with profane history, and containing most ample references to the ancient authors. The *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle*, by the Bishop of Meaux, though a work of high merit, is rather useful to those who have already studied history in detail, for uniting in the mind the great current of events, and recalling to the memory their

order and connexion, than fitted to convey information to the uninstructed.

But the student who wishes to derive the most complete advantage from history, must not confine himself to such general or compendious views; he must resort to the original historians of ancient times, and the modern writers who have treated with amplitude of particular periods. It may be useful to such students to point out the order in which those historians may be most profitably perused.

2. Next to the historical books of the Old Testament, the most ancient history worthy of perusal is that of Herodotus, which comprehends the annals of Lydia, Ionia, Lycia, Egypt, Persia, Greece, and Macedonia, during above 230 years preceding 479 A.C.

Book 1. contains the History of Lydia from Gyges to Crœsus; Ancient Ionia; Manners of the Persians, Babylonians, &c.; History of Cyrus the Elder.

B. 2. History of Egypt, and Manners of the Egyptians.

B. 3. History of Cambyses.—Persian Monarchy under Darius Hystaspes.

B. 4. History of Scythia.

B. 5. Persian Embassy to Macedon; Athens, Lacedæmon, Corinth, at the same period.

B. 6. Kings of Lacedæmon.—War of Persia against Greece, to the battle of Marathon.

B. 7. The same war, to the battle of Thermopylæ.

B. 8. The naval battle of Salamis.

B. 9. The defeat and expulsion of the Persians from Greece.

(The merits of Herodotus are shortly characterized *supra*, Sect. XXII. § 1.)

3. A more particular account of the periods treated by Herodotus may be found in Justin, lib. 1, 2, 3, and 7; the Cyropædia of Xenophon; the lives of Aristides, Themistocles, Cimon, Miltiades, and

Pausanias, written by Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos; and those of Anaximander, Zeno, Empedocles, Heraclitus, and Democritus, by Diogenes Laertius.

4. The Grecian History is taken up by Thucydides from the period where Herodotus ends, and is continued for seventy years, to the twenty-first of the Peloponnesian war. (This work characterized, Sect. XXII. § 2.) The period he treats of is more amply illustrated by perusing the eleventh and twelfth books of Diodorus Siculus; the lives of Alcibiades, Chabrias, Thrasybulus, and Lysias, by Plutarch and Nepos; the second, third, fourth, and fifth books of Justin, and fourteenth and fifteenth chapters of the first book of Orosius.

5. Next to Thucydides, the student ought to peruse the first and second books of Xenophon's History of Greece, which comprehend the narrative of the Peloponnesian war, with the contemporary history of the Medes and Persians; then the expedition of Cyrus (*Anabasis*), and the continuation of the history to its conclusion with the battle of Mantinea. (Xenophon characterized, Sect. XXII. § 3.) For illustrating this period, we have the Lives of Lysander, Agesilaus, Artaxerxes, Conon, and Datames, by Plutarch and Nepos; the fourth, fifth, and sixth books of Justin; and the thirteenth and fourteenth of Diodorus Siculus.

6. After Xenophon, let the student read the fifteenth and sixteenth books of Diodorus, which contain the history of Greece and Persia, from the battle of Mantinea, to the reign of Alexander the Great. (Diodorus characterized, Sect. XXII. § 5.) To complete this period, let him read the lives of Dion, Iphicrates, Timotheus, Phocion, and Timoleon, by Nepos.

7. For the history of Alexander the Great, we have the admirable works of Arrian and Quintus Curtius (the former characterized, Sect. XXII. § 8). Curtius possesses great judgment in the selection of facts, with much elegance and perspicuity of

diction. He is a good moralist and a good patriot: but his passion for embellishment derogates from the purity of history, and renders his authority suspicious.

8. For the continuation of the history of Greece from the death of Alexander, we have the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth books of Diodorus; and the history of Justin from the thirteenth book downwards; together with the lives of the principal personages, written by Plutarch. The history of Justin is a most judicious abridgment of a much larger work by Trojus Pompeius, which is lost. Justin excels in the delineation of characters, and in purity of style.

9. I have mentioned the lives of Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos as the best supplement to the account of particular periods of ancient history. It is the highest praise of Plutarch, that his writings breathe the most admirable morality, and furnish the most instructive lessons of active virtue. He makes us familiarly acquainted with the great men of antiquity, and chiefly delights in painting their private character and manners. The short lives written by Nepos shew great judgment, and a most happy selection of such facts as display the genius and character of his heroes. They are written likewise with great purity and elegance.

10. For the Roman history in its early periods, we have, first, the Antiquities of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, which bring down the history of Rome to 412 A.U.C. They are chiefly valuable, as illustrating the manners and customs, the rites, civil and religious, and the laws of the Roman state. But the writer is too apt to frame hypotheses, and to give views instead of narratives. We look for these in the modern writers who treat of ancient times, but we cannot tolerate them in the sources of history.

11. The work of Livy is infinitely more valuable; a perfect model of history, both as to matter and composition (characterized Sect. XXXVI. § 10).

Of 132 books, we have only remaining thirty-five, and these interrupted by a considerable chasm. The first decade (or ten books) treats of a period of 460 years; the second decade, containing seventy-five years, is lost; the third contains the second Punic war, including eighteen years; the fourth contains the war against Philip of Macedon, and the Asiatic war against Antiochus, a space of twenty-three years; of the fifth decade there are only five books; and the remainder, which reaches to the death of Drusus (746 A.U.C.), has, together with the second decade, been supplied by Freinshemius. To supply the chasm of the second decade, the student ought to read, together with the epitome of those lost books, the first and second books of Polybius; the seventeenth, eighteenth, twenty-second, and twenty-third books of Justin; the lives of Marcellus and Fabius Maximus by Plutarch; and the Punic and Illyrian wars by Appian.

12. But the history of Polybius demands a separate and attentive perusal, as an admirable compendium of political and military instruction. Of forty books of general history we have only five entire, and excerpts of the following twelve. The matter of which he treats is the history of the Romans, and the nations with whom they were at war, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the beginning of the war with Macedonia, comprising in all a period of about fifty years. Of the high estimation in which Polybius stood with the authors of antiquity, we have sufficient proof in the encomiums bestowed on him by Cicero, Strabo, Josephus, and Plutarch; and in the use which Livy has made of his history, in adopting his narratives in many parts of his work, by an almost literal translation.

13. The work of Appian, which originally consisted of twenty books, from the earliest period of the Roman history down to the age of Adrian, is greatly mutilated; there remaining only his account of the Syrian, Parthian, Mithridatic, Spanish, Punic,

and Illyrian wars. His narrative of each of these wars is remarkably distinct and judicious, and his composition, on the whole, is chaste and perspicuous. After the history of Appian, the student should resume Livy, from the beginning of the third decade, or twenty-first book, to the end. Then he may peruse with advantage the lives of Hannibal, Scipio Africanus, Flaminius, Paulus Æmilius, the elder Cato, the Gracchi, Marius, Sylla, the younger Cato, Sertorius, Lucullus, Julius Cæsar, Cicero, Pompey, and Brutus, by Plutarch.

14. The histories of the Jugurthine war, and the conspiracy of Catiline by Sallust, come next in order. (Sallust characterized Sect. XXXVI. § 8.) Then follow the Commentaries of Cæsar (Sect. XXXVI. § 9), remarkable for perspicuity of narration, and a happy union of brevity with elegant simplicity of style. The epitomes of Florus and of Velleius Paterculus (the latter a model for abridgment of history) may be perused with advantage at this period of the course.

15. For the history of Rome under the first emperors, we have Suetonius and Tacitus; and for the subsequent reigns, the series of the minor historians, termed *Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores* and the Byzantine writers. Suetonius rather gives us a series of detached characters, illustrated by an artful selection of facts and anecdotes, than a regular history. His work is chiefly valuable as descriptive of Roman manners, though his genius has too much of the caustic humour of a satirist. Tacitus, with greater powers and deeper penetration (see Sect. XXXVI, § 11), has drawn his picture of the times in stern and gloomy colours. From neither of these historians will the ingenuous mind of youth receive moral improvement, or pleasing or benevolent impressions; yet we cannot deny their high utility to the student of politics.

16. If we except Herodian, who wrote with taste and judgment, it is doubtful whether any of the sub-

sequent writers of the Roman history deserve a minute perusal. It were preferable that the student should derive his knowledge of the history of the decline and fall of the empire from modern authors, resorting to the original writers only for occasional information on detached points of importance. For this purpose, the General History by Dr. Howel is a work of very high utility, as being written entirely on the basis of the original historians, whose narrative he in general translates, referring constantly to his authorities in the margin. The student will find in this work a most valuable mass of historical information.

17. The reader, having thus founded his knowledge of general history on the original writers, will now peruse with great advantage the modern histories of ancient Greece and Rome, by the able pens of Mitford, Gillies, Gast, Hooke, Gibbon, and Fergusson, and will find himself qualified to form a just estimate of their merits, on which (though too frequently the practice) it is presumptuous to decide without such preparatory knowledge.

18. The greatest magazine of historical information which has ever been collected into one body, is the English Universal History; a most useful work, from the amplitude of its matter, its general accuracy, and constant reference to the original authors. We may occasionally consult it with great advantage on points where deep research is necessary; but we cannot read it with pleasure as a continued work, from its tedious details and harshness of style, as well as from its abrupt transitions, and the injudicious arrangement of many of its parts.

19. Geography and chronology have been justly termed the *lights* of history. We cannot peruse with advantage the historical annals of any country without a competent notion of its geographical site, and even of its particular topography. In reading the description of all events, the mind necessarily pictures out the scenes of action; and these it is

surely better to draw with truth from nature and reality, than falsely from imagination. Many actions and events are likewise intimately connected with the geography and local circumstances of a country, and are unintelligible without a knowledge of them.

20. The use of chronological tables is very great, both for the purpose of uniting in one view the contemporary events in different nations, which often have an influence on each other, and for recalling to the memory the order and series of events, and renewing the impressions of the objects of former study. It is extremely useful, after perusing the history of a nation in detail, or that of a certain age or period, to run over briefly the principal occurrences in a table of chronology. The most perfect works of this kind are the chronological tables of Dr. Playfair, which unite history and biography; the tables of Dr. Blair; or the older tables by Tallent.

END OF PART FIRST.

130 140 150 160 170

Polaris

60

40

Sizyges

Throana

SERICA

Scythia Issedon Scythia

Drosache

Extra IMAUM

Achassa

Semanthine

30

Brachmani

Ganbeda Fl.

Passalæ

INDIA

intra

Ganges R.

Tupma

Gangaridæ

Aurea Regio

Triglyphum

Sinarum Metr.

20

COMPARATIVE VIEW

OF

ANCIENT AND OF MODERN

GEOGRAPHY.

In the following Tables, the Countries unknown to the Ancients, or of which the Names are uncertain, are left blank.

MODERN EUROPE.

GREENLAND, or the Arctic Continent
SPITSBERGEN Island
ICELAND Island, belonging to Norway

- NORWAY.
  1. Wardhuis, or Norwegian Lapland.
  2. Drontheim.
  3. Bergen
  4. Aggerhuis, or Christiana.

- SWEDEN.
  1. Lapland and West Bothnia
  2. Sweden Proper
  3. Gothland
  4. Finland
  5. Islands of Gothland, Œland, Aland, Rugen

- DENMARK.
  - Jutland
    1. Alburg
    2. Wyburg
    3. Aarhusen
    4. Rypen
    5. Sleswick
  - Danish Islands in the Baltic
    1. Zealand
    2. Funen
    3. Falster
    4. Longeland
    5. Laland
    6. Femeren
    7. Alsen
    8. Moen
    9. Bornholm

ANCIENT EUROPE.

- **Scandinavia, Scandia, vel Baltia.**
  - 2. Nerigon
  - 3. Sitones
  - 1. Scritofinni
  - 2. Suiones
  - 3. Gutæ et Hilleviones
  - 4. Finningia
  - 5. Insulæ Sinus Codani
- Chersonesus Cimbrica
  - 1. Cimbri
  - 3. Harudes
  - 4. Phundusii, Sigulones
  - 5. Saablingii
- Insulæ Sinus Codani
  - 1. Teutones
  - 2. Teutones

Russia in Europe.	1. Livonia and Estonia 2. Ingria, or the Government of Petersburg 3. Carelia, or the Government of Wiburg 4. Novogrod 5. Archangel, Samoideia 6. Moscow 7. Nishnei Novogrod 8. Smolenski 9. Kiew 10. Bielgorod 11. Woronesk 12. Azoff
France.	1. Picardy 2. Isle of France 3. Champagne 4. Normandy 5. Bretany 6. Orleannois 7. Lionnois 8. Provence 9. Languedoc 10. Guienne 11. Gascoigne 12. Dauphiné 13. Burgundy and Franche Compté 14. Lorraine and Alsace

SARMATIA EUROPÆA.

1. Hirri et Æstii vel Ostiones.
4. Budini
6. Basilici
8. Cariones
10. & 4. Budini
11. Roxolani
12. Iazyges

GALLIA.

1. Ambiani
2. Bellovaci, Parisii, Suessones
3. Remi, Catalauni, Tricasses, 13. Lingones
4. Unelli vel Veneti, Saii, Lexovii, Veliocasses
5. Osismii, Veneti, Namnetes, Andes, Redones
6. Aureliani, Carnutes, Senones, Turones, Pictones, Bituriges

} Celtæ

7. Ædui, Segusiani
8. Salyes, Cavares
9. Volcæ, Arecomici Helvii, Tolosates
10. Petrocorii, Bituriges, Cadurci, Ruteni
11. Aquitani
12. Allobroges, Centrones
13. Lingones, Æqui, Sequani
14. Leuci, Mediomatrici, Triboci, Nemetes

United Netherlands.

1. Holland
2. Friesland
3. Zealand
4. Groningen
5. Overyssell
6. Guelderland and Zutphen
7. Utrecht

Austrian, French, and Dutch Netherlands.

1. Brabant, *Dutch* / *Austrian*
2. Antwerp, *Austrian*
3. Mechlen or Malines, *Austrian*
4. Limburgh, *Dutch* / *Austrian*
5. Luxemburgh, *French* / *Austrian*
6. Namur, *Austrian*
7. Hainault, *Austrian* / *French*
8. Cambresis, *French*
9. Artois, *French*
10. Flanders, *Dutch* / *Austrian* / *French*

- **Saxones.**
  - 1. Frisi
  - 2. Frisi
  - 4. Cauci vel Chauci
  - 5. Franci
  - 6. Bructeri, Catti, Sicambri
  - 7. Batavi
- **Belgæ, &c.**
  - 1. Menapii, Tungrii
  - 2. Toxandri
  - 4. Alemanni
  - 5. Alemanni
  - 6. Treveri
  - 7. Remi
  - 9. Atrebates, Veromandui
  - 10. Belgæ, Morini

GERMANY.	1. Upper Saxony 2. Lower Saxony 3. Westphalia 4. Upper Rhine 5. Lower Rhine 6. Franconia 7. Austria 8. Bavaria 9. Suabia
BOHEMIA.	1. Bohemia Proper 2. Silesia 3. Moravia
POLAND.	1. Greater Poland 2. Lesser Poland 3. Prussia Royal 4. Prussia Ducal 5. Samogitia 6. Courland 7. Lithuania 8. Warsovia 9. Polachia 10. Polesia 11. Red Russia 12. Podolia 13. Volhinia

- NATIONES GERMANICÆ.
  - 1. Suevi Lingæ, &c.
  - 2. Saxones, Longobardi, Gambrivii
  - 3. Cherusci, Chamavi, Gauchi, Germania Inferior
  - 4. Germania Superior
  - 5. Marci, Tincteri

  } Saxones

  - 6. Marcomanni, Hermonduri
  - 7. Noricum
  - 8. Rhætia
  - 9. Vindelicia
  - 1. Boiohœmum
  - 2. Corconti
  - 3. Quadi
- GERMANO-SARMATÆ.
  - 1. Peucini
  - 2. Lugi
  - 3. } Burgundiones, Rugii, Gu-
  - 4. } thones
  - 5. Ombroges
  - 6. Scyri
  - 7. } Germano-Sarmatia
  - 8. }
  - 11. } Bastarnæ
  - 12. }
  - 13. }

Spain.

1. Gallicia
2. Asturia
3. Biscay
4. Navarre
5. Arragon
6. Catalonia
7. Valentia
8. Murcia
9. Granada
10. Andalusia
11. Old Castile
12. New Castile
13. Leon
14. Estremadura

Spanish Islands.

- Ivica
- Majorca
- Minorca

Portugal.

- Entre Minho e Douro
- Tra los Montes
- Beira
- Estremadura
- Entre Tajo
- Alentajo
- Algarva

- 1. 2. 3. } Gallæcia—Cantabri, Astures, Varduli
- 4. 5. 6. } Tarraconensis—Vascones, Valetani

HISPANIA, vel IBERIA.

- 7. 8. } Carthaginensis — Æditani, Contestani
- 9. 10. } Bætica—Bastiani, Bastuli Turdetani, &c.
- 11. } Gallæciæ pars—Accæi, Arevaci
- 12. } Tarraconensis pars — Carpetani, Oretani
- 13. } Gallæciæ pars—Vettones
- 14. } Lusitaniæ pars—Bæturia

INSULÆ HISPANICÆ. { Baleares

LUSITANIA. {
- Calliaci
- Lusitani
- Celtici

SWITZERLAND.

1. Bern
2. Friburg
3. Basil or Bâle
4. Lucern
5. Soluturn
6. Schaffhausen
7. Zurick
8. Appenzel
9. Zug
10. Schweitz
11. Glaris
12. Uri
13. Underwald
14. Geneva
15. Grisons, &c.

} Confederates of the Swiss.

ITALY.

1. Savoy
2. Piedmont
3. Montferrat
4. Milan
5. Genoa
6. Parma
7. Modena
8. Mantua
9. Venice
10. Trent
11. The Popedom
12. Tuscany
13. Lucca
14. San Marino
15. Kingdom of Naples

HELVETIA.

1. 2. 3. 4. Ambrones.
6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Tigurini.
14. Nantuates
15. Veragri, Vallis Pennina, Lepontii

ITALIA.

1. Lepontii, Segusini, Taurini
2. Orobi
3. 4. Insubres
5. Liguria
6. Anamani
7. Boii
8. Cenomani
9. Venetia
10. Tridentini

Gallia Cisalpina, vel Togata.

11. Lingones, Senones, Picenum, Umbria, Sabini, Pars Latii
12. Tuscia vel Etruria
13. Pars Tusciæ
14. Pars Umbriæ
15. Samnium, Pars Latii, Apulia, Campania, Lucania, Bruttium

ITALIAN ISLANDS.
1. Sicily
2. Sardinia
3. Corsica
4. Malta
5. Lipari Islands
6. Capri, Ischia, &c.

HUNGARY.
TRANSYLVANIA.

SCLAVONIA.
CROATIA.

TURKEY in EUROPE.
1. Dalmatia
2. Bosnia
3. Servia
4. Wallachia
5. Moldavia and Bessarabia
6. Bulgaria
7. Albania
8. Macedonia
9. Romania
10. Livadia
11. Morea
12. Budziac Tartary or Bessarabia
13. Little Tartary
14. Crimea

GREEK ISLANDS.
1. Corfu
2. Cephalonia
3. Zante
4. Ithace, Thiace, &c.

In the ARCHIPELAGO.
1. Candia
2. Negropont
3. Stalimene
4. Scyro, &c.

INSULÆ ITALICÆ.
1. Sicilia, Sicania, vel Trinacria
2. Sardo vel Sardinia
3. Cyrnus vel Corsica
4. Melita
5. Lipariæ Insulæ
6. Capreæ, Ischia, &c.

DACIA.

PANNONIA-ILLYRICUM.

GRÆCIA.
1. Dalmatia
2. Mæsia Superior
3. Dacia Ripensis
4. Getæ
5. Pars Daciæ
6. Mæsia Inferior
7. Epirus
8. Macedonia
9. Thracia
10. Thessalia
11. Peloponnesus
12. Scythia et pars Daciæ
13. Parva Scythia
14. Taurica Chersonesus

INSULÆ MARIS IONII.
1. Corcyra
2. Cephalenia
3. Zacynthus
4. Ithaca, &c.

INSULÆ MARIS ÆGÆI.
1. Creta
2. Eubœa
3. Lemnos
4. Scyros, &c.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Scotland.—Modern.	Scotia.—Ancient.		
1. Edinburgh	1.	Damnii	Vectu-riones
2. Haddington	2.		
3. Berwick	3. Ottodini		
4. Roxburgh	4.	Selgovæ	
5. Selkirk	5.		
6. Dumfries	6.		
7. Kirkcudbright	7.		
8. Peebles	8.	Novantes	
9. Wigton	9.		
10. Lanark	10.		
11. Air	11.		
12. Dumbarton	12.	Damnii	Picti
13. Bute	13.		
14. Renfrew	14.		
15. Stirling	15.		
16. Linlithgow	16.		
17. Fife	17.	Caledonii	
18. Clackmannan	18.		
19. Kinross	19.		
20. Perth	20.		
21. Argyle	21. Epidii, Gadeni, Cerones		
22. Kincardine	22. Vernicones		Atta-coti
23. Forfar	23. Horestæ		
24. Aberdeen	24.	Tæzali	
25. Banff	25.		
26. Elgin	26.		
27. Nairn	27.	Vacomagi	
28. Inverness	28.		
29. Ross	29.	Cantæ	Scoti
30. Cromarty	30.		
31. Sutherland	31.		
32. Caithness	32. Mertæ		
33. Orkney	33. Orcades		
34. Shetland	34. Thule		

GREAT BRITAIN.

England.—Modern.	England.—Ancient.
1. Cornwall	1. } Damnonii
2. Devonshire	2. }
3. Dorsetshire	3. Durotriges
4. Hampshire	4. }
5. Somersetshire	5. } Belgæ
6. Wiltshire	6. }
7. Berkshire	7. Attrebatii
8. Oxfordshire	8. } Dobuni
9. Gloucestershire	9. }
10. Monmouthshire	10. } Silures
11. Herefordshire	11. }
12. Worcestershire	12. }
13. Staffordshire	13. } Cornavii
14. Shropshire	14. }
15. Essex	15. Trinobantes
16. Hertfordshire	16. Catieuchlani
17. Kent	17. Cantii
18. Surrey	18. } Regni
19. Sussex	19. }
20. Norfolk	20. } Simeni, vel
21. Suffolk	21. } Iceni
22. Cambridgeshire	22. }
23. Huntingdonshire	23. } Catieuchlani
24. Bedfordshire	24. }
25. Buckinghamshire	25. Attrebatii
26. Lincolnshire	26. }
27. Nottinghamshire	27. }
28. Derbyshire	28. } Coritani
29. Rutlandshire	29. }
30. Leicestershire	30. }
31. Warwickshire	31. Cornavi
32. Northamptonshire	32. Catieuchlani

GREAT BRITAIN.

England continued.

MODERN.	ANCIENT.
33. Northumberland	33. } Ottadeni
34. Durham	34. }
35. Yorkshire	35. } Brigantes
36. Lancashire	36.
37. Westmoreland	37.
38. Cumberland	38.
39. Cheshire	39. Cornavii
40. Middlesex	40. Attrebates et Catieuchlani

WALES.

1. Anglesey	1. Mona Insula
2. Flintshire	2. } Ordovices
3. Montgomery	3.
4. Denbighshire	4.
5. Carnarvonshire	5.
6. Merioneth	6.
7. Cardiganshire	7. } Demetæ
8. Carmarthenshire	8.
9. Pembrokeshire	9.
10. Radnorshire	10. } Silures
11. Brecknockshire	11.
12. Glamorganshire	12.

IRELAND.		HIBERNIA vel IRENE.
	MODERN.	ANCIENT.
Leinster	1. Louth	1. Voluntii
	2. Meath East	2. } Cauci
	3. Meath West	3. }
	4. Longford	4. Auteri
	5. Dublin	5. } Blanii
	6. Kildare	6. }
	7. King's County	7. } Coriondi
	8. Queen's County	8. }
	9. Wicklow	9. Blanii
	10. Carlow	10. } Manapii
	11. Wexford	11. }
	12. Kilkenny	12. Coriondi
Ulster	13. Donegal or Tyrconnel	13. Vennicnii
	14. Londonderry	14. }
	15. Antrim	15. } Robogdii
	16. Tyrone	16. }
	17. Fermanagh	17. Erdini
	18. Armagh	18. }
	19. Down	19. } Voluntii
	20. Monaghan	20. }
	21. Cavan	21. Cauci
Munster	22. Cork County	22. Vodiæ, Iverni
	23. Waterford	23. } Brigantes
	24. Tipperary	24. }
	25. Limerick	25. } Velabori
	26. Kerry	26. }
	27. Clare	27. } Gangani
Connaught	28. Galway	28. }
	29. Roscommon	29. Auteri
	30. Mayo	30. }
	31. Sligo	31. } Nagnatæ
	32. Leitrim	32. }

MODERN.

BRITANNIC ISLANDS.
1. Shetland and Orkney
2. Western Isles of Scotland
3. Man
4. Anglesey
5. Wight

MODERN ASIA.

TURKEY in ASIA.
1. Natolia
2. Amasia or Siwas
3. Aladulia
4. Caramania
5. Irak
6. Diarbeck
7. Curdistan
8. Turcomania
9. Georgia
10. Syria and Palestine

ARABIA.
Arabia Petræa
Arabia Deserta
Arabia Felix

ANCIENT.

INSULÆ BRITANNICA.
1. Thule
2. Ebudes Insulæ
3. Monæda vel Mona
4. Mona
5. Vectis

ANCIENT ASIA.

ASIA MINOR.
1. Mysia, Lydia, Caria, Phrygia, Bithynia, Galatia, Paphlagonia
2. Pontus
3. Armenia
4. Cappadocia, Cicilia, &c.

5. Babylonia, Chaldæa
6. Mesopotamia
7. Assyria
8. Armenia Major
9. Armenia Major
10. Syria, Palmyrene Phœnicia, Judæa

ARABIA.
Arabia Petræa
Arabia Deserta
Arabia Felix

- **PERSIA.**
  - 1. Chorassan
  - 2. Balk, Sablustan, and Candahar
  - 3. Sigistan
  - 4. Makeran
  - 5. Kerman
  - 6. Farsistan
  - 7. Chusestan
  - 8. Irak Agem
  - 9. Curdestan
  - 10. Aderbeitzen
  - 11. Georgia
  - 12. Gangea
  - 13. Dagestan
  - 14. Mazanderam
  - 15. Gilan Taberistan
  - 16. Chirvan
- **INDIA.**
  - Mogol
    - Delli
    - Agra
    - Cambaia
    - Bengal
  - India within the Ganges
    - Decan
    - Golconda
    - Bisnagar
    - Malabar
  - Island of Ceylon
  - India beyond the Ganges
    - Pegu
    - Tonquin
    - Cochinchina
    - Siam

- **Persia.**
  - 1. Pars Hyrcaniæ et Sogdianæ
  - 2. Bactriana
  - 3. Drangiana
  - 4.
  - 5. Gedrosia
  - 6. Persis
  - 7. Susiana
  - 8. Parthia
  - 9. Pars Assyriæ
  - 10. Media
  - 11. 12. 13. } Iberia, Colchis, et Albania
  - 15. Pars Hyrcaniæ
  - 16. Pars Albaniæ
- **India.**
  - India intra Gangem
    - Palibothra
    - Agora
    - Regna Pori et Taxilis
    - Dachanos
    - Prasii *vel* Gangaridæ
    - Male
  - Taprobana Ins. *vel* Salice
  - India extra Gangem
    - Sinarum Regio

MODERN.		ANCIENT.	
China.	Niuche		
	Corea		
	Laotong		Sinæ
	Pekin		
	Xansi		Sericæ
	Xensi		
	Xantum		Cathæa
	Nanking		
	Chekiam		
	Honan		
	Huquam		
	Kiamsi		
	Fokien		
	Canton		
	Quamsi		
	Suchuen		
	Quecheu		
	Yunum		
Chinese Islands.	Formosa		
	Ainan		
	Macao		
	Bashee Islands.		
Russia in Asia.	1. Astracan	1. Sarmatia.	Asiatica
	2. Orenburg	Scythia	2.
	3. Casan		3.
	4. Siberia: Tobolsk	intra	
	Jeniseia		
	Irkutsk	Imaum.	
	Kamschatka		
Independent Tartary.	1. Great Buccharia	1. Bactriana	
		Sogdiana	
	2. Karasm	2. Aria	

MODERN.		ANCIENT.	
Aluth Tartars.	1. Little Bucharia 2. Casgar 3. Turkestan 4. Kalmac Tartars 5. Thibet 6. Little Thibet.	Scythia extra Imaum.	1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.
Chinese Tartary.	Kalkas Mongol Tartars Mantchou Tartars Corea	Sinæ.	
Islands of Chinese Tartary.	Sagalien-Ula-hata Jedso		
Islands of Japan.	Japan or Niphon Xicoco Ximo		
Philippine Isles.	Lucon or Manilla Mindanao, &c.		
Marian or Ladrone Islands.	Tinian		
Isles of Sunda.	Borneo Sumatra Java, &c.		
Molucca Isles.	Celebes Amboyna Ceram Timor Flores, &c.		

Maldiva Isles.

MODERN AFRICA.

- Barbary.
  1. Morocco
  2. Algiers
  3. Tunis
  4. Tripoli
  5. Barca
- 1. Egypt
- 2. Blidulgerid
- 3. Zaara, or the Desert
- 4. Negroland
- 5. Guinea
- 6. Upper Ethiopia.
  - Nubia
  - Abyssinia
  - Abex
- 7. Lower Ethiopia
- 8. Lower Guinea.
  - Loango
  - Congo
  - Angola
  - Benguela
  - Matanan
- 9. Ajan
- 10. Zanguebar
- 11. Monomotapa
- 12. Monoemugi
- 13. Sofola
- 14. Terra de Natal
- 15. Cafraria, or Country of the Hottentots.

ANCIENT AFRICA.

1. Mauretania Tingitana
2. Mauretania Cæsariensis
3. Numidia, Africa Propria
4. Tripolitana
5. Cyrenaica, Lybia Superior

1. Ægyptus
2. Libya Inferior, Gætulia
3. Solitudines
4. Autololes

6. Æthiopiæ et Libyæ pars

7. Æthiopiæ pars.

NORTH AMERICA.

BRITISH.

1. The countries on the east and west sides of Baffin's and Hudson's Bays
2. Labrador, or New Britain
3. Canada
4. Nova Scotia
5. New England
6. New York
7. New Jersey
8. Pennsylvania
9. Maryland
10. Virginia
11. North Carolina
12. South Carolina
13. Georgia
14. Florida

} United States.

ISLANDS.

1. Newfoundland
2. Cape Breton
3. Bermudas
4. Long Island
5. Bahama Islands
6. Jamaica
7. St. Christopher's
8. Nevis
9. Montserrat
10. Antigua
11. Dominica
12. St. Vincent
13. Tobago
14. Grenada
15. Barbadoes, &c. &c.

NORTH AMERICA.

Spanish.

1. Mexico, or New Spain
2. New Mexico
3. Louisiana

Islands.

1. Cuba
2. Porto Rico
3. West part of St. Domingo
4. Trinidad
5. Margarita
6. Cubagua, &c.

DUTCH Islands.

1. Part of St. Martin's Isle
2. Eustatius
3. Aves
4. Buenayres
5. Curaçoa
6. Aruba

FRENCH Islands.

1. Miquelon
2. St. Pierre
3. Part of St. Martin's Isle
4. St. Bartholomew
5. Martinico
6. Guadaloupe
7. Desiada
8. Mariegalante
9. St. Lucia
10. Part of St. Domingo

DANISH Islands.

1. St. Thomas
2. Santa Cruz

SOUTH AMERICA.

FRENCH. { Part of the province of Guiana, Cayenne, &c.

SPANISH. {
1. Terra Firma
2. Country of the Amazons
3. Peru
4. Chili
5. Terra Magellanica
6. Paraguay
7. Tucuman

DUTCH. Part of Guiana, Surinam, &c.

PORTUGUESE. {
Brasil, and many islands on the coast
Part of Guiana

The empire of ASSYRIA, under Ninus and Semiramis, about 2200 before J. C., comprehended

Asia Minor
Colchis
Assyria
Media Chaldea
Egypt.

The Empire of ASSYRIA, as divided about 820 before J. C., formed three kingdoms,

Media
Babylo-Chaldea { Syria, Chaldea
Lydia { All Asia Minor

The empire of the PERSIANS, under Darius Hystaspes, 522 before J. C., comprehended

Persis
Susiana
Chaldea
Assyria
Media
Bactriana
Armenia
Asia
Parthia
Iberia
Albania
Colchis
Egypt
Part of Ethiopia
Part of Scythia.

The Empire of ALEXANDER the GREAT, 330 before J. C., consisted of

1. All Macedonia and Greece, excepting Peloponnesus
2. All the Persian Empire, as above described
3. India to the banks of the Indus on the east, and Iaxartes or Tanais on the north.

The Empire of ALEXANDER was thus divided 306 before J. C., between Ptolemy, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus,

Empire of Ptolemy { Egypt, Lybia, Arabia, Cœlosyria, Palestine.

Empire of Cassander	Macedonia Greece.
Empire of Lysimachus	Thrace Bithynia.
Empire of Seleucus	Syria, and All the rest of Alexander's empire.

The Empire of the PARTHIANS, 140 before J. C., comprehended

Parthia
Hyrcania
Media
Persis
Bactriana
Babylonia
Mesopotamia
India to the Indus.

The ROMAN Empire, under the Kings, was confined to the City of Rome, and a few miles around it.

The ROMAN Empire, at the end of the Republic, comprehended

All Italy
Great part of Gaul
Part of Britain
Africa Proper
Great part of Spain
Illyria, Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia,
Achaia
Macedonia
Dardania, Mœsia, Thracia
Pontus, Armenia
Judæa, Cilicia, Syria
Egypt.

Under the Emperors,

All Spain
The Alpes Maritimæ, Piedmont, &c.
Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia
Pontus Armenia
Assyria
Arabia
Egypt
} were reduced into Roman provinces.

Constantius Chlorus and Galerius divided the Empire into EASTERN and WESTERN; and under Constantine each had a distinct capital or seat of empire.

The extent of each division was fluctuating from time to time; but in general,

The WESTERN Empire comprehended
- Italy
- Illyria
- Africa
- Spain
- The Gauls
- Britain.

The EASTERN Empire comprehended
- Asia Minor
- Pontus, Armenia
- Assyria, Media, &c.
- Egypt
- Thrace
- Dacia
- Macedonia.

The Empire of CHARLEMAGNE, A.D. 800, comprehended

FRANCE.
- Neustria, comprehending Bretany, Normandy, Isle of France, Orleannois
- Austria, comprehending Picardy and Champagne
- Aquitania, comprehending Guienne and Gascony
- Burgundia, comprehending Burgundy, Lionnois, Languedoc, Dauphiné, Provence

Marca Hispanica, or Navarre and Catalonia
Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, Corsica
Italy, as far south as Naples
Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia
Rhætia, Vindelica, Noricum
Germany, from the Rhine to the Oder, and the banks of the Baltic.

MODERN HISTORY.

PART SECOND.

I.

OF ARABIA, AND THE EMPIRE OF THE SARACENS.*

1. THE fall of the Western empire of the Romans, and the final subjugation of Italy by the Lombards, is the era from which we date the commencement of modern history.

The Eastern empire of the Romans continued to exist for many ages after this period, still magnificent, though in a state of comparative weakness and degeneracy. Towards the end of the sixth century, a new dominion arose in the East, which was destined to produce a wonderful change on a great portion of the globe.

The Arabians,† at this time a rude nation, living chiefly in independent tribes, who traced their descent from the patriarch Abraham, professed a mixed religion compounded of Judaism and idolatry. Mecca, their holy city, arose to eminence from the donations of pilgrims to its temple, in which was reposited a black stone, an object of high venera-

* See Hereford's Gibbon for an interesting account of the rise and progress of the Mahometan power.

† Arabia is a large peninsula which contains the vacant space between Persia, Syria, Egypt, and Ethiopia; and the entire surface is about four times as large as Germany or France. It is bounded on the north by Syria and Palestine; on the south by the Indian Ocean; on the east by the Gulfs of Bassora and Ormus; and on the west by the Red Sea. It is divided into three nominal parts, called the *Stony*, the *Sandy*, and the *Happy* Arabia.

tion. Mahomet* was born at Mecca, four years after the death of Justinian (A.D. 569). Of mean descent, and no education, but of great natural talents, he sought to raise himself to celebrity, by feigning a divine mission to propagate a new religion for the salvation of mankind. He retired to the desert, and pretended to hold conferences with the angel Gabriel, who delivered to him from time to time portions of a sacred book or *Koran*, containing revelations of the will of the Supreme Being, and of the doctrines which he required his prophet to communicate to the world.

2. This religion, while it adopted in part the morality of Christianity, retained many of the rites of Judaism, and some of the Arabian superstitions, as the pilgrimage to Mecca; but owed to a certain spirit of Asiatic voluptuousness its chief recommendation to its votaries. The Koran taught the belief of one God, whose will and power were con-

* 'Mahomet, or more properly Mohammed, sprung from the tribe of Koreish, and the family of Hashem, the only son of Abdallah and Amina. In his early infancy he was deprived of his father and mother; and his numerous uncles reduced the share of the orphan's inheritance to five camels, and an Æthiopian maid-servant. His uncle, Abu Taleb, was the guardian of his youth; in his twenty-fifth year, he entered into the service of Cadijah, a rich widow of Mecca, who soon bestowed upon him her hand and fortune. By this alliance, the son of Abdallah was restored to the station of his ancestors; and continued in the practice of domestic virtue till, in the fortieth year of his age, he assumed the title of a prophet, and proclaimed the religion of the Koran.

'The personal beauty of Mahomet is established by the tradition of his companions; and in the familiar offices of life, he adhered to the grave and ceremonious politeness of his country. His memory was capacious and retentive; his wit easy and social; his imagination sublime; his judgment clear, rapid, and decisive. He was educated in the use of the purest dialect of Arabia; and the fluency of his speech was corrected and enhanced by the practice of discreet and seasonable silence; but these powers of eloquence were contrasted with an illiterate mind; and the youth of Mahomet had never been instructed in the arts of reading and writing. The two journeys he had undertaken into Syria, were confined to the fairs of Bosra and Damascus; in the first, when he accompanied his uncle, he was only thirteen years of age; and in the second, his duty compelled him to return when he had disposed of the merchandise of Cadijah. From his earliest youth, Mahomet was addicted to religious contemplation; each year, during the month of Ramadan, he withdrew to the cave of Hera, three miles from Mecca; and at length delivered, under the name of *Islam*, that faith, which is compounded of an eternal truth, and a necessary fiction. "*That there is only one God, and that Mahomet is the apostle of God.*" '—*Gibbon.*

stantly exerted towards the happiness of his creatures; that the duty of man was to love his neighbours, assist the poor, protect the injured, to be humane to inferior animals, and to pray seven times a-day. The pious mussulman was allowed to have four wives, and as many concubines as he chose; and the pleasures of love were promised as the supreme joys of paradise. To revive the impression of these laws, which God had engraven originally in the hearts of men, he had sent from time to time his prophets upon earth, Abraham, Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet; the last the greatest, to whom all the world should owe its conversion to the true religion. By producing the Koran in detached parcels, Mahomet had it in his power to solve all objections by new revelations.

3. Dissensions and popular tumults between the believers and infidels caused the banishment of Mahomet from Mecca. His flight, called the *Hegyra* (A.D. 622), is the era of his glory. He betook himself to Medina, was joined by the brave Omar, and, propagating his doctrines with great success, marched with his followers in arms, and took the city of Mecca. In a few years he subdued all Arabia; and then attacking Syria, won several of the Roman cities. In the midst of his victories he died at the age of sixty-three (A.D. 632). He had nominated Ali his son-in-law his successor, but Abubeker his father-in-law secured the succession, by gaining the army to his interest.

4. Abubeker united and published the books of the Koran, and prosecuted the conquests of Mahomet. He defeated the army of Heraclius, took Jerusalem, and subjected all between Mount Libanus and the Mediterranean. On his death (A.D. 634), after a short reign of two years, Omar was elected to the Caliphate, and in one campaign deprived the Greek empire of Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldea. In the next, he subdued to the Mussulman dominion and religion the whole empire of

Persia. His generals at the same time conquered Egypt, Lybia, and Numidia. It was by the order of Omar that the celebrated library at Alexandria was burned (A.D. 639).

5. Otman, or Othman, the successor of Omar, added to the dominion of the caliphs Bactriana, and part of Tartary, and ravaged Rhodes and the Greek islands. His successor was Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet, a name to this day revered by the Mahometans. He transferred the seat of the Caliphat from Mecca to Couffa, whence it was afterwards removed to Bagdat. His reign was glorious, but only of five years' duration. In the space of half a century from the beginning of the conquests of Mahomet, the Saracens raised an empire more extensive than what remained of the Roman. Nineteen caliphs of the race of Omar *(Ommiades)* reigned in succession, after which began the dynasty of the *Abassidæ*, descended by the male line from Mahomet. Almanzor, second caliph of this race, removed the seat of empire to Bagdat, and introduced learning and the culture of the sciences, which his successors continued to promote with equal zeal and liberality. Haroun Alraschid, an accomplished scholar, flourished in the beginning of the ninth century, and is celebrated as a second Augustus. He was contemporary with Charlemagne, and reigned twenty-three years. The sciences chiefly cultivated by the Arabians were, Medicine, Geometry, and Astronomy; and if they were not the inventors of Algebra, they at least introduced the knowledge of it to the western nations. They improved the Oriental Poetry, by adding regularity to its fancy and luxuriancy of imagery.*

* The Arabian Nights' Entertainments is supposed to be a production of the age of Alraschid, and to exhibit a correct picture of the manners of that period.

II.

MONARCHY OF THE FRANKS.

1. The Franks were originally those tribes of Germans who inhabited the districts lying on the Lower Rhine and Weser, and who, in the time of Tacitus, passed under the names of Chauci, Cherusci, Catti, Sicambri, &c. They assumed or received the appellation of *Franks*, or freemen, from their temporary union to resist the dominion of the Romans. Legendary chronicles record a Pharamond and a Meroveus; the latter the head of the first race of the kings of France, termed the Merovingian; but the authentic history of the Franks commences only with his grandson Clovis, who began to reign in the year 481. While only in the twentieth year of his age, Clovis achieved the conquest of Gaul, by the defeat of Syagrius, the Roman governor, near Soissons; and marrying Clotilda, daughter of Chilperic king of Burgundy, soon added that province to his dominions, by dethroning his father-in-law. He was converted by Clotilda; and the Franks, till then idolaters, became Christians, after their sovereign's example. The Visigoths, professing Arianism, were masters at this time of Aquitaine, the country between the Rhone and Loire. The intemperate zeal of Clovis prompted the extirpation of these heretics, who retreated across the Pyrenees into Spain, and the province of Aquitaine became part of the kingdom of the Franks. They did not long retain it; for Theodoric the Great, defeating Clovis in the battle of Arles, added Aquitaine to his own dominions. Clovis dishonoured the latter part of his reign by many acts of cruelty, and died A.D. 511.

2. His four sons, Thierry, Clodomir, Childebert, and Clotaire, divided the monarchy, and were perpetually at war with each other, which led to many acts of

savage cruelty and barbarity. A series of weak and wicked princes succeeded, and Gaul for some ages was characterized under its Frank sovereigns by more than ancient barbarism. On the death of Dagobert II. (A.D. 715), who left two infant sons, the government, during their minority, fell into the hands of their chief officers, termed Mayors of the Palace; and these ambitious men founded a new power, which for some generations held the Frank sovereigns in absolute subjection, and left them little more than the title of king. The kingdom of the Franks, at this time, was separated into two great divisions, or provinces; the eastern part was called Austrasia, and the western part Neustria. They were nominally governed by Thierry, but in reality by Pepin Heristel, mayor of the palace, who, restricting his sovereign to a small domain, ruled France for thirty years with great wisdom and good policy, and with a power hitherto unknown to the monarchy. His son, Charles Martel, succeeded to his power, and under a similar title governed for twenty-six years with equal ability and success. He was victorious over all his domestic foes, his arms kept in awe the surrounding nations, and he delivered France from the ravages of the Saracens, whom he entirely defeated, between Tours and Poictiers (A.D. 732). He was brave and politic, and under the title of mayor increased the glory of the French name. He died A.D. 741.

3. Charles Martel bequeathed the government of France, as an undisputed inheritance, to his two sons, Pepin le Bref, and Carloman, who governed under the same title of mayor, the one Austrasia, and the other Neustria and Burgundy. On the resignation of Carloman, Pepin succeeded to the sole administration; and, ambitious of adding the title of king to the power which he already enjoyed, proposed the question to pope Zachary, whether he or his sovereign Childeric was most worthy of the throne? Zachary, who had his own interest in view,

decided that Pepin had a right to add the title of king to the office; and Childeric III. was confined to a monastery for life. With him ended the first or Merovingian race of the kings of France (A.D. 751), which had filled the throne for 334 years.

4. Pepin recompensed the service done him by the pope, by turning his arms against the Lombards; and stripping them of the exarchate of Ravenna, he made a donation of that and other considerable territories to the holy see, which were the first, as is alleged, of its temporal possessions. Conscious of his defective title, it was the principal object of Pepin le Bref to conciliate the affections of the people whom he governed. The legislative power among the Franks was vested in the people assembled in their *Champs de Mars*. Under the Merovingian race the regal authority had sunk to nothing, while the power of the nobles had attained to an inordinate extent. Pepin found it his best policy to acknowledge and ratify those rights, which he could not without danger have invaded; and thus, under the character of guardian of the powers of all the orders of the state, he exalted the regal office to its proper elevation, and founded it on the securest basis. On his death-bed, he called a council of the grandees, and obtained their consent to a division of his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman. He died A.D. 768, at the age of fifty-three, after a reign of seventeen years from the death of Childeric III., and an administration of twenty-seven from the death of Charles Martel.

III.

REFLECTIONS ON THE STATE OF FRANCE DURING THE MEROVINGIAN RACE OF ITS KINGS. ORIGIN OF THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. The manners of the Franks were similar to those of the other Germanic nations described by Tacitus. Though under the command of a chief or king, their government was extremely democratical, and they acknowledged no other than a military subordination. The legislative authority resided in the general assembly of the people, or *Champ de Mars*, so called from being held annually on the 1st day of March; a council in which the king had but a single suffrage, equally with the meanest soldier. But when in arms against the enemy, his power was absolute in enforcing military discipline.

2. After the establishment of the Franks in Gaul, some changes took place from their new situation. They reduced the Gauls to absolute subjection; yet they left many in possession of their lands, because the new country was too large for its conquerors. They left them likewise in the use of their existing laws, which were those of the Roman code, while they themselves were governed by the Salique and Ripuarian laws, ancient institutions in observance among the Franks before they left their original seats in Germany. Hence arose that extraordinary diversity of local laws and usages in the kingdom of France, which continued down to modern times, and gave occasion to numberless inconveniences.

3. The ancient Germans had the highest veneration for their priests or Druids. It was natural that the Franks, after their conversion to Christianity, should have the same reverence for their bishops, to whom accordingly they allowed the first rank in the national assembly. These bishops were generally

chosen from among the native Gauls; for, having adopted from this nation their new religion, it was natural that their priests should be chosen from the same people. The influence of the clergy contributed much to ameliorate the condition of the conquered Gauls, and to humanize their conquerors; and in a short space of time the two nations were thoroughly incorporated.

4. At this period a new system of policy is visible among this united people, which by degrees extended itself over most of the nations of Europe, *the Feudal System.*

By this expression is properly meant that tenure or condition on which the proprietors of land held their possessions, viz. an obligation to perform military service, whenever required by the chief or overlord to whom they owed allegiance.

Many modern writers attribute the origin of this institution or policy to the kings of the Franks, who, after the conquest of Gaul, are supposed to have divided the lands among their followers, on this condition of military service. But this notion is attended with insurmountable difficulties. For, in the first place, it proceeds on this false idea, that the conquered lands belonged in property to the king, and that he had the right of bestowing them in gifts, or dividing them among his followers; whereas it is a certain fact, that among the Franks the partition of conquered lands was made by lot, as was the division even of the spoil or booty taken in battle; and that the king's share, though doubtless a larger portion than that of his captains, was likewise assigned him by lot. Secondly, if we should suppose the king to have made those gifts to his captains out of his own domain, the creation of a very few *beneficia* would have rendered him a poorer man than his subjects. We must therefore have recourse to another supposition for the origin of the fiefs; and we shall find that it is to be traced to a source much more remote than the conquest of Gaul by the Franks.

5. Among all barbarous nations, with whom war is the chief occupation, we remark a strict subordination of the members of a tribe to their chief or leader. It was observed by Cæsar as peculiarly strong among the Gaulish nations, and as subsisting not only between the soldiers and their commander, but between the inferior towns or villages and the canton or province to which they belonged. In peace every man cultivated his land, free of all taxation, and subject to no other burden than that of military service when required by his chief. When the province was at war, each village, though taxed to furnish only a certain number of soldiers, was bound to send, on the day appointed for a general muster, all its males capable of bearing arms, and from these its rated number was selected by the chief of the province. This *clientela* subsisted among the Franks as well as among the Gauls. It subsisted among the Romans, who in order to secure their distant conquests, were obliged to maintain fixed garrisons on their frontiers, to check the inroads of the barbarian nations. To each officer in these garrisons it was customary to assign a portion of land as the pledge and pay of his service. These gifts were termed *beneficia*, and their proprietors *beneficiarii*, Plin. Ep. lib. 10. ep. 32. The *beneficia* were at first granted only for life: Alexander Severus was the first that allowed them to descend to heirs, on the like condition of military service, and Constantine the Great in like manner made gifts of land to his principal officers perpetual and hereditary.

6. When Gaul was overrun by the Franks, a great part of the lands was possessed on this tenure by the Roman soldiery, as the rest was by the native Gauls. The conquerors, accustomed to the same policy, would naturally adopt it in the partition of their new conquests; each man, on receiving his share, becoming bound to military service, as a condition necessarily annexed to territorial property. With respect to those Gauls who retained their pos-

sessions, no other change was necessary, than to exact the same obligation of military vassalage to their new conquerors that they had rendered to their former masters the emperors, and, before the Roman conquest, to their native chiefs. Thus no other change took place than that of the overlord. The system was the same which had prevailed for ages.

7. But these *beneficia*, or fiefs, were personal grants, revocable by the sovereign or overlord, and reverting to him on the death of the vassal. The weakness of the Frank kings of the Merovingian race imboldened the possessors of fiefs to aspire at independence and security of property. In a convention held at Andeli in 587, to treat of peace between Gontran and Childebert II., the nobles obliged these princes to renounce the right of revoking their benefices, which henceforward passed by inheritance to their eldest male issue.

8. It was a necessary consequence of a fief becoming perpetual and hereditary, that it should be capable of subinfeudation; and that the vassal himself, holding his land of the sovereign by the tenure of military service, should be enabled to create a train of inferior vassals, by giving to them portions of his estate to be held on the same condition, of following his standard in battle, rendering him homage as their lord, and paying, as the symbol of their subjection, a small annual present, either of money, or the fruits of their lands. Thus, in a little time, the whole territory in the feudal kingdoms was either held immediately and *in capite* of the sovereign himself, or immediately by inferior vassals of the tenants *in capite*.

9. It was natural, that in those disorderly times, when the authority of government and the obligation of general laws were extremely weak, the superior or overlord should acquire a civil and criminal jurisdiction over his vassals. The *Comites*, to whom, as the chief magistrates of police, the administration of justice belonged of right, paid little at-

tention to the duties of their office, and shamefully abused their powers. The inferior classes naturally chose, instead of seeking justice through this corrupted channel, to submit their law-suits to the arbitration of their overlord; and this jurisdiction, conferred at first by the acquiescence of parties came at length to be regarded as founded on strict right. Hence arose a perpetual contest of jurisdiction between the greater barons in their own territories and the established judicatories; a natural cause of that extreme anarchy and disorder which prevailed in France during the greater part of the Merovingian period, and which sunk the regal authority to the lowest pitch of abasement. In a government of which every part was at variance with the rest, it is not surprising that a new power should arise, which, in able hands, should be capable of enslaving and bringing the whole under subjection.

10. The mayor of the palace, or first officer of the household, gradually usurped, under a series of weak princes, the whole powers of the sovereign. This office, from a personal dignity, became hereditary in the family of Pepin *Heristel;* and his grandson, Pepin *le Bref*, removing from the throne those phantoms of the Merovingian race, assumed, by the authority of a papal decree, the title of king, and reigned for seventeen years with dignity and success, the founder of the second race of the French monarchs known by the name of the Carlovingian, which filled the throne of France for a period of 253 years.

IV.

CHARLEMAGNE—THE NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST.

1. Pepin *le Bref*, with the consent of his nobles, divided, on his death-bed, the kingdom of France between his sons, Charles and Carloman (A. D. 768).

The latter dying a few years after his father, Charles succeeded to the undivided sovereignty. In the course of a reign of forty-five years, *Charlemagne* (for so he was deservedly styled) extended the limits of his empire beyond the Danube; subdued Dacia, Dalmatia, and Istria; conquered and subjected all the barbarous tribes to the banks of the Vistula, made himself master of a great portion of Italy, and successfully encountered the arms of the Saracens, the Huns, the Bulgarians, and the Saxons. His war with the Saxons was of thirty years' duration, and their final conquest was not achieved without an inhuman waste of blood. At the request of the pope, and to discharge the obligation of his father Pepin to the holy see, Charlemagne, though allied by marriage to Desiderius king of the Lombards, dispossessed that prince of all his dominions, and put a final period to the Lombard dominion in Italy (A.D. 774), which had subsisted upwards of 200 years.

2. He made his entry into Rome at the festival of Easter, was there crowned king of France and of the Lombards, and was, by pope Adrian I., invested with the right of ratifying the election of the popes. Irene, empress of the East, sought to ally herself with Charlemagne, by the marriage of her son Constantine to the daughter of this monarch; but her subsequent inhuman conduct in putting Constantine to death, gave ground to suspect the sincerity of her desire for that alliance.

3. In the last visit of Charlemagne to Italy, he was consecrated emperor of the West by the hands of pope Leo III. It is probable, that had he chosen Rome for his residence and seat of government, and at his death transmitted to his successor an undivided dominion, that great but fallen empire might have once more been restored to lustre and respect; but Charlemagne had no fixed capital, and he divided, even in his life-time, his dominions among his children (A.D. 806).

4. The economy of government and the domestic administration of Charlemagne merit attention. Pepin *le Bref* had introduced the system of annual assemblies or parliaments, held at first in March, and afterwards in May, where the chief estates of clergy and nobles were called to deliberate on the public affairs and the wants of the people. Charlemagne appointed the assemblies to be held twice in the year, in spring and in autumn. In the latter all affairs were prepared and digested; in the former was transacted the business of legislation; and of this assembly he made the people a party, by admitting from each province or district twelve deputies or representatives. The assembly now consisted of three estates, who each formed a separate chamber, which discussed apart the concerns of its own order, and afterwards united to communicate their resolutions, or to deliberate on their common interests. The sovereign was never present, unless when called to ratify the decrees of the assembly.

5. Charlemagne divided the empire into provinces, and these into districts, each comprehending a certain number of counties. The districts were governed by royal envoys, chosen by the emperor from the clergy and nobles, and bound to an exact visitation of their territories every three months. These envoys held yearly conventions, at which were present the higher clergy and barons, to discuss the affairs of the district, examine the conduct of its magistrates, and redress the grievances of individuals. At the general assembly, or *Champ de Mai*, the royal envoys made their report to the sovereign and states; and thus the public attention was constantly directed to all the concerns of the empire.

6. The private character of Charlemagne was most amiable and respectable. His secretary, Eginhart, has painted his domestic life in beautiful and simple colouring. The economy of his family, when the daughters of the emperor were assiduously employed in spinning and housewifery, and the sons

trained by their father in the practice of all manly exercises, is characteristic of an age of great simplicity. This illustrious man died A.D. 814, in the seventy-second year of his age. Contemporary with him was Haroun Alraschid, caliph of the Saracens, equally celebrated for his conquests, excellent policy, and the wisdom and humanity of his government.

7. Of all the lawful sons of Charlemagne, Lewis the *Debonaire* was the only one who survived him, and who therefore succeeded without dispute to the imperial dominions, excepting Italy, which the emperor had settled on Bernard, his grandson by Pepin, his second son.

V.

MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, AND CUSTOMS, OF THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. In establishing the provincial conventions under the royal envoys, Charlemagne did not entirely abolish the authority of the ancient chief magistrates, the dukes and counts. They continued to command the troops of the province, and to make the levies in stated numbers from each district. Cavalry was not numerous in the imperial armies, twelve farms being taxed to furnish only one horseman with his armour and accoutrements. The province supplied six months' provisions to its complement of men, and the king maintained them during the rest of the campaign.

2. The engines for the attack and defence of towns were, as in former times, the ram, the balista, catapulta, testudo, &c. Charlemagne had his ships of war stationed in the mouths of all the large rivers. He bestowed great attention on commerce. The merchants of Italy and the south of France traded to the Levant, and exchanged the commodities of Europe and Asia. Venice and Genoa were rising into

commercial opulence; and the manufactures of wool, of glass, and iron, were successfully cultivated in many of the principal towns in the south of Europe.

3. The value of money was nearly the same as in the Roman empire in the age of Constantine the Great. The numerary livre, in the age of Charlemagne, was supposed to be a pound of silver, in value about £3. sterling of English money. At present the livre is worth $10\frac{1}{2}d.$ English. Hence we ought to be cautious in forming our estimate of ancient money from its name; and from the want of this caution have arisen the most erroneous ideas of the commerce, riches, and strength, of the ancient kingdoms.

4. The *Capitularia* of Charlemagne, compiled into a body, A.D. 827, were recovered from oblivion in 1531 and 1545. They present many circumstances illustrative of the manners of the times. Unless in great cities, there were no inns; the laws obliged every man to give accommodation to travellers, and it was considered the highest breach of civil and religious duty to refuse to do so. The chief towns were built of wood, and even the walls were of that material. The state of the mechanic arts was very low in Europe: the Saracens had brought them to greater perfection. Painting and sculpture were only preserved from absolute extinction by the existing remains of ancient art. Charlemagne appears to have been anxious for the improvement of music; and the Italians are said to have instructed his French performers in the art of playing on the organ. Architecture was studied and successfully cultivated in that style termed the Gothic, which admits of great beauty, elegance, and magnificence. The composition of Mosaic appears to have been an invention of those ages.

5. The knowledge of letters was extremely low, and confined to a few of the ecclesiastics: but Charlemagne gave the utmost encouragement to literature and the sciences, inviting into his do-

minions of France men eminent in those departments from Italy, and from the Britannic isles, which, in those dark ages, preserved more of the light of learning than any of the western kingdoms.

Neque enim sil enda laus Britanniæ, Scotiæ, et Hiberniæ, quæ studio liberalium artium eo tempore antecellebant reliquis occidentalibus regnis; et cura præsertim monachorum, qui literarum gloriam, alibi aut languentem aut depressam, in iis regionibus impigre suscitarent atque tuebantur.'—*Murat. Antiq. Ital. Diss.* 43. The scarcity of books in those times, and the nature of their subjects, legends, lives of the saints, &c. evince the narrow diffusion of literature.

6. The pecuniary fines for homicide, the ordeal or judgment of God, and judicial combat, were striking peculiarities in the laws and manners of the northern nations, and particularly of the Franks. With this warlike but barbarous people, revenge was esteemed honourable and meritorious. The high-spirited warrior chastised or vindicated with his own hand the injuries he had received or inflicted, and he had only to dread the resentment of the sons or kinsmen of the enemy he sacrificed. The magistrate interfered, not to punish but to reconcile, and was satisfied if he could persuade the aggressor to pay, and the injured party to accept, the moderate fine which was imposed as the price of blood; and of which the measure was estimated according to the rank, the sex, and the country, of the person slain. But increasing civilization abolished those barbarous distinctions. We have remarked the equal severity of the laws of the Visigoths, both in the crime of murder and robbery; and even among the Franks in the age of Charlemagne, deliberate murder was punished with death.

7. By their ancient laws, a party accused of any crime was allowed to produce compurgators, or a certain number of witnesses, according to the measure of the offence; and if these declared upon oath their belief of his innocence, it was held a suf-

ficient exculpation. Seventy-two compurgators were required to acquit a murderer or an incendiary. The flagrant perjuries occasioned by this absurd practice probably gave rise to the trial by ordeal, which was termed, as it was believed to be, the judgment of God. The criminal was ordered, at the option of the judge, to prove his innocence or guilt, by the ordeal of cold water, of boiling water, or red hot iron. He was tied hand and foot, and thrown into a pool, to sink or swim; he was made to fetch a ring from the bottom of a vessel of boiling water, or to walk barefooted over burning ploughshares; and history records examples of those wonderful experiments having been undergone without injury or pain.

8. Another peculiarity of the laws and manners of the northern nations was judicial combat. Both in civil suits and in the trial of crimes, the party destitute of legal proofs might challenge his antagonist to mortal combat, and rest the cause upon its issue. This sanguinary and most iniquitous custom, which may be traced to this day in the practice of duelling, had the authority of law in the court of the Constable and Marshal, even in the last century, in France and England.

VI.

A RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE AFFAIRS OF THE CHURCH PRECEDING THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. The Arian and Pelagian heresies divided the Christian church for many ages. In the fourth century, Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, maintained the separate and inferior nature of the second Person of the Trinity, regarding Christ as the noblest of created beings, through whose agency the Creator had formed the universe. His doctrine was condemned in the Council of Nice, held by Constan-

tine (A.D. 325), who afterwards became a convert to his opinions. These for many centuries had an extensive influence, and produced the sects of the Eunomians, Semi-Arians, Eusebians, &c.

2. In the beginning of the fifth century, Pelagius and Cælestius, the former a native of Britain, the latter of Ireland, denied the doctrine of original sin, and the necessity of divine grace to enlighten the understanding, and purify the heart; and maintained the sufficiency of man's natural powers for the attainment of the highest degrees of piety and virtue. These tenets were ably combated by St. Augustine, and condemned by an ecclesiastical council, but have ever continued to find many supporters.

3. The most obstinate source of controversy in those ages was regarding the worship of images; a practice which, though at first opposed by the clergy, was afterwards, from interested motives, countenanced and vindicated by them. It was, however, long a subject of division in the church. The emperor Leo the Isaurian (A.D. 727) attempted to suppress this idolatry, by the destruction of every statue and picture found in the churches, and by punishment of their worshippers; but this intemperate zeal rather increased than repressed the superstition. His son Constantine Copronymus, with wiser policy, satisfied himself with procuring its condemnation by the church.

4. From the doctrines of the Platonic and Stoic philosophy, which recommended the purification of the soul, by redeeming it from its subjection to the senses, arose the system of penances, mortification, religious sequestration, and monachism. After Constantine had put an end to the persecution of the Christians, many conceived it a duty to procure for themselves voluntary grievances and sufferings. They retired into caves and hermitages, and there practised the most rigorous mortifications of the flesh, by fasting, scourging, vigils, &c. This frenzy

first shewed itself in Egypt in the fourth century, whence it spread all over the East, a great part of Africa, and within the limits of the bishopric of Rome. In the time of Theodosius, these devotees began to form communities or *cœnobia*, each associate binding himself by oath to observe the rules of his order. St. Benedict introduced monachism into Italy under the reign of Totila; and his order, the Benedictine, soon became extremely numerous, and most opulent, from the many rich donations made by the devout and charitable, who conceived they profited by their prayers. Benedict sent colonies into Sicily and France, whence they soon spread over all Europe.

5. In the East, the *monachi solitarii* were first incorporated into *cœnobia* by St. Basil, bishop of Cæsarea, in the middle of the fourth century; and, some time before that period, the first monasteries for women were founded in Egypt by the sister of St. Pacomo. From these, in the following age, sprung a variety of orders, under different rules. The rule of the Canons Regular was framed after the model of the apostolic life. The Mendicants, to chastity, obedience, and poverty, added the obligation of begging alms. The military religious orders were unknown till the age of the holy war. (See *postea*, Sect. XVII. § 3.) The monastic fraternities owed their reputation chiefly to the little literary knowledge which, in those ages of ignorance, they exclusively possessed.

6. In the fifth century arose a set of fanatics termed *Stylites*, or pillar-saints, who passed their lives on the tops of pillars of various height. Simeon of Syria lived thirty-seven years on a pillar sixty feet high, and died upon it. This frenzy prevailed in the East for many centuries.

7. Auricular confession, which had been abolished in the East in the fourth century, began to be in use in the West in the age of Charlemagne, and has ever since prevailed in the Romish church. The canoni-

zation of saints was for near twelve centuries practised by every bishop. Pope Alexander III., one of the most vicious of men, first claimed and assumed this right, as the exclusive privilege of the successor of St. Peter.

8. The conquests of Charlemagne spread Christianity in the north of Europe; but all beyond the limits of his conquests was idolatrous. Britain and Ireland had received the light of Christianity at an earlier period, but it was afterwards extinguished, and again revived under the Saxon Heptarchy.

VII.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST UNDER THE SUCCESSORS OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. The empire of Charlemagne, raised and supported solely by his abilities, fell to pieces under his weak posterity. Lewis (*le Débonnaire*, or the good-natured), the only survivor of his lawful sons, was consecrated emperor and king of the Franks at Aix-la-Chapelle, A.D. 816. Among the first acts of his reign was the partition of his dominions among his children. To Pepin, his second son, he gave Aquitaine, the southern third of France; to Lewis, the youngest, Bavaria; and he associated his eldest son Lotharius with himself in the government of the rest. The three princes quarrelled among themselves, agreeing in nothing but in hostilities against their father. They made open war against him, supported by pope Gregory IV. The pretence was, that the emperor having a younger son, Charles, by his second wife Judith of Bavaria, who was born to him after this partition of his states, wanted to provide this child likewise in a share, which could not be done but at the expense of his elder brothers. Lewis was compelled to surrender himself, together with the empress and his son Charles, as prisoners

to his rebellious children. They confined nim for a year to a monastery; till, on a new quarrel between Lewis the Younger and Pepin, Lotharius once more restored his father to the throne; but his spirits were broken, his health decayed, and he finished, soon after, an inglorious and turbulent reign, A.D. 840.

2. The dissensions of the brothers still continued. Lotharius, now emperor, and Pepin, his brother's son, having taken up arms against the two other sons of Lewis *le Débonnaire*, Lewis of Bavaria, and Charles the Bald, were defeated by them in the battle of Fontenai, where 100,000 are said to have fallen in the field. The church, in those times, was a prime organ of civil policy. A council of bishops immediately assembled, and solemnly deposed Lotharius; assuming, at the same time, an equal authority over his conquerors, whom they permitted to reign, on the express condition of submissive obedience to the supreme spiritual authority. Yet Lotharius, excommunicated and deposed, found means so to accommodate matters with his brothers, that they agreed to a new partition of the empire. By the treaty of Verdun (A.D. 843), the western part of France, termed Neustria and Aquitaine, was assigned to Charles the Bald; Lotharius, with the title of emperor, had the nominal sovereignty of Italy, and the real territory of Lorraine, Franche Compté, Provence, and the Lyonnois; the share of Lewis was the kingdom of Germany.

3. Thus was Germany finally separated from the empire of the Franks. On the death of Lotharius, Charles the Bald assumed the empire, or, as is said, purchased it from pope John VIII., on the condition of holding it as a vassal to the holy see. This prince, after a weak and inglorious reign, died by poison A.D. 877. He was the first of the French monarchs who made dignities and titles hereditary. Under the distracted reigns of the Carlovingian kings, the nobles attained great power, and com-

manded a formidable vassalage. They strengthened themselves in their castles and fortresses, and bid defiance to the arm of government, while the country was ravaged and desolated by their feuds.

4. In the reign of Charles the Bald, France was plundered by the Normans, or Northernmen, a new race of Goths from Scandinavia,* who had begun their depredations even in the time of Charlemagne, checked only in their progress by the terror of his arms, and by the naval force which he established to guard the mouths of the rivers. Their fleets consisted of small light vessels, which braved the storms of the ocean, and enabled them to penetrate into every quarter. In A.D. 843, they sailed up the Seine, and plundered Rouen; while another fleet entered the Loire, and laid waste the country in its vicinity, carrying, together with its spoils, men, women, and children, into captivity. In the following year they attacked the coasts of England, France, and Spain, but were repelled from the last by the good conduct and courage of its Mahometan rulers. In 845, they entered the Elbe, plundered Hamburgh, and penetrated far into Germany. Eric, king of Denmark, who commanded these Normans, sent once more a fleet into the Seine, which advanced to Paris. Its inhabitants fled, and the city was burnt. Another fleet, with little resistance, pillaged Bourdeaux. To avert the arms of these ravagers, Charles the Bald bribed them with money; and his successor, Charles the Gross, yielded them a part of his Flemish dominions. These were only incentives to fresh depredation. Paris was attacked a second time, but gallantly defended by Count Odo or Eudes, and the venerable Bishop Goslin. A truce was a second time concluded, and the barbarians only changed the scene of their attack. They besieged Sens, and plundered Burgundy, while an assembly of the States held at Mentz deposed

* At present Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.

the unworthy Charles, and conferred the crown on the more deserving Eudes; who, during a reign of ten years, manfully withstood the Normans. A great part of the states of France, however, refused his title to the crown, and gave their allegiance to Charles surnamed the Simple.

Rollo, the Norman, in 912, compelled the king of France to yield him a large portion of the territory of Neustria, and to give him his daughter in marriage. This distinguished warrior was worthy of founding a state, and the new kingdom which he founded was called Normandy, of which Rouen was the capital; it became happy and flourished under his laws. He embraced the Christian religion, conquered the ferocity of his people, and made them apply to agriculture, instead of piracy, and guarded the kingdom from any farther invasion. It is the race of those warriors whom we shall see presently the conquerors of England.

VIII.

EMPIRE OF THE EAST DURING THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. While the new empire of the West was thus rapidly tending to dissolution, the empire of Constantinople retained yet a vestige of its ancient grandeur. It had lost its African and Syrian dependencies, and was plundered by the Saracens on the eastern frontier, and ravaged on the north and west by the Abari and Bulgarians. The capital, though splendid and refined, was a constant scene of rebellions and conspiracies; and the imperial family itself exhibited a series of the most horrid crimes and atrocities: one emperor put to death in revenge of murder and incest; another poisoned by his queen; a third assassinated in the bath by his own domestics; a fourth tearing out the eyes of his brothers; the

empress Irene, respectable for her talents, but infamous for the murder of her only son. Of such complexion was that series of princes who swayed the sceptre of the East for near 200 years.

2. In the latter part of this period, a most violent controversy was maintained respecting the worship of images, and they were alternately destroyed and replaced according to the humour of the sovereign. The female sex were their most zealous supporters. This was not the only subject of division in the Christian church; the doctrines of the Manichees were then extremely prevalent, and the sword was frequently employed to support and propagate their tenets.

3. The misfortunes of the empire were increased by an invasion of the Russians from the Palus Mœotis and Euxine. In the reign of Leo, named the philosopher, the Turks, a new race of barbarians, of Scythian or Tartarian breed, began to make effectual inroads on its territories; and much about the same time its domestic calamities were aggravated by the separation of the Greek from the Latin church, of which we shall treat under the following section.

IX.

STATE OF THE CHURCH IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. The popes had begun to acquire a temporal authority under Pepin *le Bref* and Charlemagne, from the donations of territory made by those princes, nd they were now gradually extending a spiritual jurisdiction over all the Christian kingdoms. Nicholas I. proclaimed to the whole world his paramount judgment in appeal from the sentences of all spiritual judicatories; his power of assembling councils of the church, and of regulating it to the canons of those councils; the right of exercising his

authority by legates in all the kingdoms of Europe, and the control of the pope over all princes and governors. Literary imposture gave its support to these pretences: the forgery of the epistles of Isidorus was not completely exposed till the sixteenth century. Among the prerogatives of the popes was the regulation of the marriages of all crowned heads by the extreme extension of the prohibitions of the canon law, with which they alone had the power of dispensing.

2. One extraordinary event (if true) afforded, in the ninth century, a ludicrous interruption to the boasted succession of regular bishops from the days of St. Peter, the election of a female pope, who is said to have ably governed the church for three years, till detected by the birth of a child. Till the reformation by Luther, this event was neither regarded by the Catholics as incredible, nor disgraceful to the church: since that time its truth or falsehood has been the subject of keen controversy between the Protestants and Catholics; and the evidence for the latter seems to preponderate.

3. While the church was thus gradually extending its influence, and its head arrogating the control over sovereign princes, these, by a singular interchange of character, seem, in those ages, to have fixed their chief attention on spiritual concerns. Kings, dukes, and counts, neglecting their temporal duties, shut themselves up in cloisters, and spent their lives in prayers and penances. Ecclesiastics were employed in all the departments of secular government; and these alone conducted all public measures and state negotiations, which of course they directed to the great objects of advancing the interests of the church, and establishing the paramount authority of the holy see.

4. At this period, however, when the popedom seemed to have attained its highest ascendency, it suffered a severe wound in that remarkable schism which separated the patriarchates of Rome and Con-

stantinople, or the Greek and Latin churches. The Roman pontiff had hitherto claimed the right of nominating the patriarch of Constantinople. The emperor Michael III. denied this right; and deposing the pope's patriarch, Ignatius, appointed the celebrated Photius in his stead. Pope Nicholas I. resented this affront with a high spirit, and deposed and excommunicated Photius (A.D. 863), who, in his turn, pronounced a similar sentence against the pope. The church was divided, each patriarch being supported by many bishops and their dependent clergy. The Greek and Latin bishops had long differed in many points of practice and discipline, as the celibacy of the clergy, the shaving their beards, &c.; but in reality the prime source of division was the ambition of the rival pontiffs, and the jealousy of the Greek emperors, unwilling to admit the control of Rome, and obstinately asserting every prerogative which they conceived to be annexed to the capital of the Roman empire. As neither party would yield its pretensions, the division of the Greek and Latin churches became from this time permanent.

5. Amid those ambitious contests for ecclesiastical power and pre-eminence, the Christian religion itself was disgraced, both by the practice and by the principles of its teachers. Worldly ambition, gross voluptuousness, and grosser ignorance, characterized all ranks of the clergy; and the open sale of benefices placed them often in the hands of the basest and most profligate of men. Yet the character of Photius forms an illustrious exception. Though bred a statesman and a soldier, and in both these respects of great reputation, he attained, by his singular abilities, learning, and worth, the highest dignity of the church. His *Bibliotheca* is a monument of the most various knowledge, erudition, and critical judgment.

X.

OF THE SARACENS IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. In the beginning of the eighth century, the Saracens subverted the monarchy of the Visigoths in Spain, and easily overran the country. They had lately founded in Africa the empire of Morocco, which was governed by Muza, viceroy of the caliph Valid Almanzor. Muza sent his general Tariff into Spain, who, in one memorable engagement, which lasted for four days, fought at Xeres near Cadiz (A.D. 713), stripped the Gothic king Rodrigo of his crown and life. The conquerors, satisfied with the sovereignty of the country, left the vanquished Goths in possession of their property, their laws, and their religion. Abdallah the Moor married the widow of Rodrigo, and the two nations formed a perfect union. One small part of the rocky country of Asturia alone adhered to its Christian prince, Pelagius, who maintained his little sovereignty, and transmitted it inviolate to his successors.

2. The Moors pushed their conquests beyond the Pyrenees; but division arising among their Emirs, and civil wars ensuing, Lewis *le Débonnaire* took advantage of the turbulent state of the country, and invaded and seized Barcelona. The Moorish sovereignty in the north of Spain was weakened by throwing off its dependence on the caliphs; and at this juncture the Christian sovereignty of the Asturias, under Alphonzo the Chaste, began to make vigorous encroachments on the territory of the Moors. Navarra and Arragon, roused by this example, chose each a Christian king, and boldly asserted their liberty and independence.

3. While the Moors of Spain were thus losing ground in the north, they were highly flourishing in

the southern parts of that kingdom. Abdalrahman, the last heir of the family of the Ommiades (the Abassidæ now enjoying the caliphate), was recognised as the true representative of the ancient line by the southern Moors. He fixed the seat of his government at Cordova, which, from that time, for two centuries, was the capital of a splendid monarchy. This period. from the middle of the eighth to the middle of the tenth century, is the most brilliant era of Arabian magnificence. Whilst Haroun Alraschid made Bagdat illustrious by the splendour of the arts and sciences, the Moors of Cordova vied with their brethren of Asia in the same honourable pursuits, and were undoubtedly, at this period, the most enlightened of the states in Europe. Under a series of able princes, they gained the highest reputation, both in arts and arms, of all the nations of the West.

4. The Saracens were at this time extending their conquests in almost every quarter of the world. The Mahometan religion was professed over a great part of India, and all along the eastern and Mediterranean coast of Africa. The African Saracens invaded Sicily, and projected the conquest of Italy. They actually laid siege to Rome, which was nobly defended by pope Leo IV. They were repulsed, their ships were dispersed by a storm, and their army was cut to pieces (A.D. 848).

5. The Saracens might have raised an immense empire, had they acknowledged only one head: but their states were always disunited. Egypt, Morocco, Spain, India, had all their separate sovereigns, who, though they continued to respect the caliph of Bagdat as the successor of the Prophet, acknowledged no temporal subjection to his government.

XI.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST AND ITALY IN THE TENTH AND ELEVENTH CENTURIES.

1. The empire founded by Charlemagne now subsisted only in name. Arnold, a bastard son of Carloman, possessed Germany. Italy was divided between Guy duke of Spoletto and Berengarius duke of Friuli, who had received these dutchies from Charles the Bald. France, though claimed by Arnold, was governed by Eudes. Thus the empire in reality consisted only of a part of Germany, while France, Spain, Italy, Burgundy, and the countries between the Maese and Rhine, were all subject to different powers. The emperors were at this time elected by the bishops and grandees, all of whom claimed a voice. In this manner Lewis, the son of Arnold, the last of the blood of Charlemagne, was chosen emperor after the death of his father. On his demise, Otho duke of Saxony, by his credit with his brother grandees, conferred the empire on Conrad duke of Franconia, at whose death, Henry, surnamed the Fowler, son of the same duke Otho, was elected emperor (A.D. 918).

2. Henry I. (the Fowler), a prince of great abilities, introduced order and good government into the empire. He united the grandees, and curbed their usurpations; built, embellished, and fortified the cities; and enforced with great rigour the execution of the laws in the repression of all enormities. He had been consecrated by his own bishops, and maintained no correspondence with the see of Rome.

3. His son Otho (the Great, A.D. 938), again united Italy to the empire, and kept the popedom in complete subjection. He made Denmark tributary to the imperial crown, annexed the crown of Bohemia to his own dominions, and seemed to aim at a paramount authority over all the sovereigns of Europe.

4. Otho owed his ascendency in Italy to the disor-

ders of the papacy. Formosus, twice excommunicated by pope John VIII., had himself arrived at the triple crown. On his death, his rival, pope Stephen VII., caused his body to be dug out of the grave, and, after trial for his crimes, condemned it to be flung into the Tiber. The friends of Formosus fished up the corpse, and had interest to procure the deposition of Stephen, who was strangled in prison. A succeeding pope, Sergius III., again dug up the ill-fated carcass, and once more threw it into the river. Two infamous women, Marozia and Theodora, managed for many years the popedom, and filled the chair of St. Peter with their own gallants, or their adulterous offspring. Such was the state of the holy see, when Berengarius duke of Friuli disputed the sovereignty of Italy with Hugh of Arles. The Italian states and pope John XII., who took part against Berengarius, invited Otho to compose the disorders of the country. He entered Italy, defeated Berengarius, and was consecrated emperor by the pope, with the titles of Cæsar and Augustus; in return for which honours he confirmed the donations made to the holy see by his predecessors, Pepin, Charlemagne, and Lewis the Débonnaire (A.D. 962).

5. But John XII. was false to his new ally. He made his peace with Berengarius, and both turned their arms against the emperor. Otho flew back to Rome, and revenged himself by the trial and deposition of the pope; but he had scarcely left the city, when John, by the aid of his party, displaced his rival Leo VIII. Otho once more returned, and took exemplary vengeance on his enemies, by hanging one-half of the senate. Calling together the Lateran council, he created a new pope, and obtained from the assembled bishops a solemn acknowledgment of the absolute right of the emperor to elect to the papacy, to give the investiture of the crown of Italy, and to nominate to all vacant bishoprics; concessions no longer observed than while the emperor was present to enforce them.

6. Such was the state of Rome and Italy under Otho the Great, who died A.D. 973; and it continued to be much the same under his successors for a century. The emperors asserted their sovereignty over Italy and the popedom, though with a constant resistance on the part of the Romans, and a general repugnance of the pope, when once established. In those ages of ecclesiastical profligacy, it was not unusual to put up the popedom to sale. Benedict VIII. and John XIX., two brothers, publicly bought the chair of St. Peter, one after the other; and to keep it in their family, it was purchased afterwards by their friends for Benedict IX., a child of twelve years of age. Three popes, each pretending regular election, and equal right, agreed first to divide the revenues between them, and afterwards sold all their shares to a fourth.

7. The emperor Henry III., a prince of great ability, strenuously vindicated his right to supply the pontifical chair, and created three successive popes without opposition.

XII.

HISTORY OF BRITAIN FROM ITS EARLIEST PERIOD DOWN TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. THE history of Britain has been postponed to this time, in order that it may be considered in one connected view from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government.

We strive not to pierce through that mist of obscurity which veils the original population of the British isles; remarking only as a matter of high probability, that they derived their first inhabitants from the Celtæ of Gaul. Their authentic history commences with the first Roman invasion: and we learn from Cæsar and Tacitus, that the country was at that period in a state very remote from barbarism.

It was divided into a number of small independent sovereignties, each prince having a regular army and a fixed revenue. The manners, language, and religion of the people were the same with those of the Gallic Celtæ. The last was the Druidical system, whose influence pervaded every department of the government, and, by its power over the minds of the people, supplied the imperfection of laws.

2. Julius Cæsar, after the conquest of Gaul, turned his eyes towards Britain. He landed on the southern coast of the island, 55 B.C.; and meeting with most obstinate resistance, though on the whole gaining some advantage, he found himself obliged, after a short campaign, to withdraw for the winter into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a great increase of force, an army of 20,000 foot, a competent body of horse, and a fleet of 800 sail. The independent chiefs of the Britons united their forces under Cassibelanus king of the Trinobantes, and, encountering the legions with great resolution, displayed all the ability of practised warriors. But the contest was vain. Cæsar advanced into the country, burnt Verulamium (St. Albans), the capital of Cassibelanus, and, after forcing the Britons into articles of submission, returned to Gaul.

3. The domestic disorders of Italy gave tranquillity to the Britons for near a century; but, in the reign of Claudius, the conquest of the island was determined. The emperor landed in Britain, and compelled the submission of the south-eastern provinces. Ostorius Scapula defeated Caractacus, who was sent prisoner to Rome. Suetonius Paulinus, the general of Nero, destroyed Mona (Anglesey, or, as others think, Man), the centre of the Druidical superstition. The Iceni (inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk), under their queen Boadicea, attacked several of the Roman settlements. London, with its Roman garrison, was burnt to ashes. But a decisive battle ensued, in which 80,000 of the Britons fell in the field (A.D. 61); and Boadicea, rather than fall

into the hands of the victor, put an end to her life by poison. The reduction of the island, however, was not finally completed till thirty years afterwards, by Julius Agricola; who governed it in the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian; and who, after securing the Roman province against invasion from the Caledonians by a chain of forts and garrisons between the friths of Clyde and Forth, reconciled the southern inhabitants, by the introduction of Roman arts and improvements, to the government of their conquerors. The emperor Adrian, as a farther security against the irruptions of the Caledonians, built a wall from the river Tyne at Newcastle to the Solway frith. Under Severus, the Roman province was far extended into the north of Scotland, and the wall of Adrian was strengthened by more fortifications.

4. With the decline of the Roman power in the west, the southern Britons recovered their liberty, but it was only to become the object of incessant predatory invasion from their brethren of the north. The Romans, after rebuilding the wall of Severus, finally bid adieu to Britain, after having held possession of the fairest portion of it for near four centuries (A.D. 448).* The Picts and Caledonians now broke down upon the south, ravaging and desolating the country, though without a purpose of conquest, merely, as it appears, for the supply of their temporary wants. After repeated application for aid from Rome, without success, the Britons meanly solicited the Saxons of Germany for succour and protection.

5. The Saxons received the embassy with great satisfaction. Britain had been long known to them in their piratical voyages to its coasts. They landed to the amount of 1,600, under the command of Hengist and Horsa (A.D. 450), and, joining the south Britons, soon compelled the Scots to retire to their

* The Roman legions had been withdrawn from Britain, for about forty years before this period, to assist in the general defence of the empire against the barbarians of the North.

mountains. They next turned their thoughts to the entire reduction of the Britons; and receiving large reinforcements of their countrymen, after an obstinate contest of near 150 years, they reduced the whole of England under the Saxon government. Seven distinct provinces became as many independent kingdoms.

6. The history of the Saxon Heptarchy is uninteresting, from its obscurity and confusion. It is sufficient to mark the duration of the several kingdoms, till their union under Egbert. Kent began in 455, and lasted, under seventeen princes, till 827, when it was subdued by the West Saxons. Under Ethelbert, one of its kings, the Saxons were converted to Christianity by the monk Augustine. Northumberland began in 597, and lasted under twenty-three kings, till 792. East Anglia began in 575, and ended in 793. Mercia subsisted from 582 to 827. Essex had fourteen princes from 527 to 747; Sussex only five, before its reduction under the dominion of the west Saxons, about 600. Wessex, which finally subdued and united the whole of the Heptarchy, began in 519, and had not subsisted above eighty years, when Cadwalla, its king, conquered and annexed Sussex to his dominions. As there was no fixed rule of succession, it was the policy of the Saxon princes to put to death all the rivals of their intended successor. From this cause, and from the passion for celibacy, the royal families were nearly extinguished in the kingdoms of the Heptarchy; and Egbert, prince of the west Saxons, remained the sole surviving descendant of the Saxon conquerors of Britain. This circumstance, so favourable to his ambition, prompted him to attempt the conquest of the Heptarchy. He succeeded in that enterprise; and, by his victorious arms and judicious policy, the whole of the separate states were united into one great kingdom, A.D. 827, near 400 years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain.

7. England, thus united, was far from enjoying

tranquillity. The piratical Normans or Danes had for fifty years desolated her coasts, and continued for some centuries after this period to be a perpetual scourge to the country. Under Alfred (the Great), son of Ethelwolf, and grandson of Egbert, the kingdom was from this cause reduced to extreme wretchedness. The heroic Alfred, in one year, engaged and defeated the Danes in eight battles; when a new irruption of their countrymen forced him to solicit a peace, which these pirates constantly interrupted by new hostilities. The monarch himself was compelled to seek his safety for many months in an obscure quarter of the country, till the disorders of the Danish army offered a fair opportunity, which he improved to the entire defeat of his enemies. He might have cut them all to pieces, but he chose rather to spare and to incorporate them with his English subjects, giving them possessions in Northumbria and East Anglia, which had been greatly depopulated in the late wars. This clemency did not restrain them from attempting a new invasion; but they were again defeated with immense loss: and the extreme severity now from necessity shewn to the vanquished, had the effect of suspending, for several years, the Danish depredations.

8. Alfred, whether considered in his public or private character, deserves to be reckoned among the best and greatest of princes. He united the most enterprising and heroic spirit with consummate prudence and moderation; the utmost vigour of authority with the most engaging gentleness of manner; the most exemplary justice with the greatest lenity; the talents of the statesman, and the man of letters, with the intrepid resolution and conduct of a general. He found the kingdom in the most miserable condition to which anarchy, domestic barbarism, and foreign hostility, could reduce it: he brought it to a pitch of eminence surpassing, in many respects, the situation of its contemporary nations.

9. Alfred divided England into counties, with

their subdivisions of hundreds and tithings. The tithing or decennary consisted of ten families, over which presided a tithing-man, or borgholder; and ten of these composed the hundred. Every householder was answerable for his family, and the tithing-man for all within his tithing. In the decision of differences, the tithing-man had the assistance of the rest of his decennary. An appeal lay from the decennary to the court of the hundred, which was assembled every four weeks; and the cause was tried by a jury of twelve freeholders, sworn to do impartial justice. An annual meeting of the hundred was held for the regulation of the police of the district. The county-court, superior to that of the hundred, and consisting of all the freeholders, met twice a year, after Michaelmas and Easter, to determine appeals from the hundreds, and settle disputes between the inhabitants of different hundreds. The ultimate appeal from all these courts lay to the king in council; and the frequency of these appeals prompted Alfred to the most extreme circumspection in the appointment of his judges. He composed for the regulation of these courts, and of his kingdom, a body of laws, the basis of the common law of England.

10. Alfred gave every encouragement to the cultivation of letters, as the best means of eradicating barbarism. He invited, from every quarter of Europe, the learned to reside in his dominions, established schools, and is said to have founded the university of Oxford. He was himself a most accomplished scholar for the age in which he lived, as appears from the works he composed; poetical apologues, the translation of the histories of Bede and Orosius, and of Boethius on the Consolation of Philosophy. In every view of his character we must regard Alfred as one of the best and wisest men that ever occupied the regal seat. He died in the vigour of his age, A.D. 901, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years and a half, in which he had deservedly

attained the appellation of *Great*, and the title of founder of the English monarchy.

11. The admirable institutions of Alfred were partially and feebly enforced under his successors; and England, still a prey to the ravages of the Danes and intestine disorder, relapsed into confusion and barbarism. The reigns of Edward the Elder, the son of Alfred, and of his successors, Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred, were tumultuous and anarchical. In the reign of Edred the clergy, influenced by the celebrated Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, began to extend their authority over the throne, and a series of succeeding princes were the obsequious slaves of their tyranny and ambition. Under Ethelred (A.D. 981), the Danes seriously projected the conquest of England, and, led by Sweyn king of Denmark, and Olaus king of Norway, made a formidable descent, won several important battles, and were restrained from the destruction of London only by a dastardly submission, and a promise of tribute to be paid by the inglorious Ethelred. The English nobility were ashamed of their prince, and seeing no other relief to the kingdom, made a tender of the crown to the Danish monarch. On the death of Sweyn, Ethelred attempted to regain his kingdom, but found in Canute, the son of Sweyn, a prince determined to support his claims, which, on the death of Ethelred, were gallantly but ineffectually resisted by his son Edmund Ironside. At length a partition of the kingdom was made between Canute and Edmund, which after a few months the Danes annulled by the murder of Edmund, thus securing to their monarch Canute the throne of all England (A.D. 1017). Edmund left two children, Edwin and Edward. Edwin died without issue; but Edward, who married Agatha, the daughter of the emperor Henry II., had three children; Edgar Atheling, Margaret, afterwards wife to Malcolm Canmore, king of Scotland, and Christina, who retired into a convent.

12. Canute, the most powerful monarch of his

time, sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England, swayed for seventeen years the sceptre of England with a firm and vigorous hand; severe in the beginning of his reign, while his government was insecure, but mild and equitable when possessed of a settled dominion. He left (A. D. 1036) three sons—Sweyn, who was crowned king of Norway, Harold, who succeeded to the throne of England, and Hardicanute, sovereign of Denmark. Harold, a merciless tyrant, died in the fourth year of his reign, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, who, after a violent administration of two years, died in a fit of debauch. The English seized this opportunity of shaking off the Danish yoke; and they conferred the crown on Edward, a younger son of Ethelred, rejecting the preferable right of Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, who, unfortunately for his pretensions, was, at this time, abroad in Hungary. Edward, surnamed the Confessor (A. D. 1041), reigned weakly and ingloriously for twenty-five years, and died without issue in the sixty-fifth year of his age, 1066, which terminated the Saxon line of the kings of England. The rebellious attempts of Godwin, earl of Wessex, aimed at nothing less than an usurpation of the crown; and, on his death, his son Harold, cherishing secretly the same views of ambition, had the address to secure to his interest a very formidable party in the kingdom. Edward, to defeat these views, bequeathed the crown to his kinsman William duke of Normandy, a prince whose great abilities and personal prowess had rendered his name illustrious over Europe.

13. On the death of Edward the Confessor (1066) the usurper Harold took possession of the throne, which the intrepid Norman determined immediately to reclaim as his inheritance of right. He made the most formidable preparations, aided in this age of romantic enterprise by many of the sovereign princes, and a vast body of the nobility, from the different continental kingdoms. A Norwegian fleet of 300

sail entered the Humber, and disembarking their troops, were, after one successful engagement, defeated by the English army in the interest of Harold. William landed his army on the coast of Sussex, to the amount of 60,000; and the English, under Harold, flushed with their recent success, hastily advanced to meet him, imprudently resolved to venture all on one decisive battle. The total rout and discomfiture of the English army in the field of Hastings (14th October, 1066), and the death of Harold, after some fruitless attempts of farther resistance, put William duke of Normandy in possession of the throne of England.

XIII.

OF THE GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND MANNERS, OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

1. The government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons have become the subject of inquiry to modern writers, as being supposed to have had their influence in the formation of the British constitution. The government of the Saxons was the same with that of all the ancient Germanic nations, and they naturally retained in their new settlement in Britain a policy similar to their accustomed usages. Their subordination was chiefly a military one, the king having no more authority than what belonged to the general, or military leader. There was no strict rule of succession to the throne; for although the king was generally chosen from the family of the last prince, the choice usually fell on the person of the best capacity for government. In some instances the destination of the last sovereign regulated the choice. We know very little of the nature of the Anglo-Saxon government, or of the distinct rights of the sovereign and people.

2. One institution common to all the kingdoms

of the Heptarchy was the Wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men, whose consent was requisite for enacting laws, and ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The bishops and abbots formed a part of this assembly, as did the aldermen, or earls, and governors of counties. The Wites, or wise men, are discriminated from the prelates and nobility, and have by some been supposed to have been the representatives of the commons. But we hear nothing of election or representation in those periods, and we must therefore presume that they were merely landholders, or men of considerable estate, who, from their weight and consequence in the country, were held entitled, without any election, to take a share in the public deliberations.

3. The Anglo-Saxon government was extremely aristocratical; the regal authority being very limited, the rights of the people little known or regarded, and the nobility possessing much uncontrolled and lawless rule over their dependents. The offices of government were hereditary in their families, and they commanded the whole military force of their respective provinces. So strict was the *clientela* between these nobles and their vassals, that the murder of a vassal was compensated by a fine paid to his lord.

4. There were three ranks of the people, the nobles, the free, and the slaves. The nobles were either the king's thanes, who held their lands directly from the sovereign, or lesser thanes, who held lands from the former. One law of Athelstan declared, that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account was entitled to the dignity of thane; another decreed the same rank to a ceorle, or husbandman, who was able to purchase five hides of land, and had a chapel, a kitchen, a hall, and a bell. The ceorles, or freemen of the lower rank, occupied the farms of the thanes, for which they paid rent, and they were removable at the pleasure of their lord. The slaves or villains were either employed in domestic pur-

poses, or in cultivating the lands. A master was fined for the murder of his slave; and if he mutilated him, the slave recovered his freedom.

5. Under this aristocratical government there were some traces of the ancient Germanic democracy. The courts of the decennary, the hundred, and the county, were a considerable restraint on the power of the nobles. In the county-courts the freeholders met twice a year to determine appeals by the majority of suffrages. The alderman presided in those courts, but had no vote: he received a third of the fines, the remaining two-thirds devolving to the king, which was a great part of the royal revenue. Pecuniary fines were the ordinary atonement for every species of crime, and the modes of proof were the ordeal by fire or water, or by compurgators. (See *supra*, Part II. Sect. V. § 7.)

6. As to the military force, the expense of defending the state lay equally on all the land, every five hides or ploughs being taxed to furnish a soldier. There were 243,600 hides in England, consequently the ordinary military force consisted of 48,720 men.

7. The king's revenue, besides the fines imposed by the courts, consisted partly of his demesnes of property-lands, which were extensive, and partly in imposts on boroughs and sea-ports. The Danegelt was a tax imposed by the states, either for payment of tribute exacted by the Danes, or for defending the kingdom against them. By the custom of gavelkind, the land was divided equally among all the male children of the deceased proprietor. Bookland was that which was held by charter, and folkland, what was held by tenants removable at pleasure.

8. The Anglo-Saxons were behind the Normans in every point of civilization; and the Conquest was therefore to them a real advantage, as it led to material improvement in arts, science, government, and laws.

XIV.

STATE OF EUROPE DURING THE TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH CENTURIES.

1. France, from the extent and splendour of its dominion under Charlemagne, had dwindled to a shadow under his weak posterity. At the end of the Carlovingian period, France comprehended neither Normandy, Dauphine, nor Provence. On the death of Lewis V. (Fainéant), the crown ought to have devolved on his uncle, Charles of Brabant, as the last male of the race of Charlemagne; but Hugh Capet, lord of Picardy and Champagne, the most powerful of the French nobles, was elected sovereign by the voice of his brother peers (A.D. 987). The kingdom, torn by parties, suffered much domestic misery under the reign of Hugh, and that of his successor Robert, who was the victim of papal tyranny, for daring to marry a distant cousin without the dispensation of the church.

2. The prevailing passion of the times was pilgrimage and chivalrous enterprise. In this career of adventure the Normans most remarkably distinguished themselves. In 983, they relieved the prince of Salerno, by expelling the Saracens from his territory. They did a similar service to pope Benedict VIII. and the duke of Capua; while another band of their countrymen fought first against the Greeks, and afterwards against the popes, always selling their services to those who best rewarded them. William Fier-a-bras,* and his brothers, Humphrey, Robert, and Richard, kept the pope a prisoner for a year at Benevento, and forced the court of Rome to yield Capua to Richard, and Apulia and Calabria to Robert, with the investiture of

* Iron-arm.

Sicily, if he should gain the country from the Saracens. In 1101, Rogero the Norman completed the conquest of Sicily, of which the popes continued to be the lords paramount.

3. The north of Europe was in those periods extremely barbarous. Russia received the Christian religion in the eighth century. Sweden, after its conversion in the ninth century, relapsed into idolatry, as did Hungary and Bohemia. The Constantinopolitan empire defended its frontiers with difficulty against the Bulgarians on the west, and against the Turks and Arabians on the east and north.

4. In Italy, excepting the territory of the popedom, the principalities of the independent nobles, and the states of Venice and Genoa, the greatest part of the country was now in the possession of the Normans. Venice and Genoa were rising gradually to great opulence from commerce. Venice was for some ages tributary to the emperors of Germany. In the tenth century its Doge assumed the title of Duke of Dalmatia, of which the republic had acquired the property by conquest, as well as of Istria, Spalatro, Ragusa, and Narenza.

5. Spain was chiefly possessed by the Moors; the Christians retaining only about a fourth of the kingdom, namely, Asturia, part of Castile and Catalonia, Navarre, and Arragon. Portugal was likewise occupied by the Moors. Their capital was Cordova, the seat of luxury and magnificence. In the tenth century the Moorish dominions were split among a number of petty sovereigns, who were constantly at war with each other; but such, unfortunately, was likewise the situation of the Christian part of the kingdom; and it was no uncommon policy for the Christian princes to form alliances with the Moors against each other. Besides these, the country abounded with independent lords, who made war their profession, and performed the office of champions in deciding the quarrels of princes, or enlisting themselves in their service, with all their

vassals and attendants. Of these, termed *Cavalleros andantes*, or knights-errant, the most distinguished was Rodrigo the Cid, who undertook for his sovereign, Alphonso king of Old Castile, to conquer the kingdom of New Castile, and achieved it with success, obtaining the government of Valencia as the reward of his services.

6. The contentions between the imperial and papal powers make a distinguished figure in those ages. Henry III. vindicated the imperial right to fill the chair of St. Peter, and nominated three successive popes, Clement II., Damascus II., and Leo IX., without the intervention of the council of the church. But in the minority of his son Henry IV., this right was frequently interrupted, and Alexander II. kept his seat, though the emperor named another in his place. It was the lot of this emperor to experience the utmost extent of papal insolence and tyranny. After a spirited contest with Gregory VII.,* in which the pope was twice his prisoner, and the emperor as often excommunicated and deposed, Henry fell at length the victim of ecclesiastical vengeance. Urban II., a successor of Gregory, prompted the two sons of Henry to rebel against their father; and his misfortunes were terminated by imprisonment and death in 1106. The same contest went on under a succession of popes and emperors, but ended commonly in favour of the former. Frederic I. (Barbarossa), a prince of high spirit, after an indignant denial of the supremacy of Alexander III., and a refusal of the customary homage, was at length compelled to kiss his feet, and appease his holiness, by a large cession of territory. Pope Celestinus kicked off the imperial crown of Henry VI. while doing homage on his knees, but made amends for this insolence by the gift of Naples and Sicily, from which Henry had

* It was this pope who first assumed a power over all Christian kings, and who seriously attempted to make them submit to his authority, not only in spiritual but in temporal matters.

expelled the Normans. These territories now became an appanage of the empire (1194).—The succeeding popes rose on the pretensions of their predecessors, till at length Innocent III., in the beginning of the thirteenth century, established the powers of the popedom on a settled basis, and obtained a positive acknowledgment of the papal supremacy, or the right *principaliter et finaliter* to confer the imperial crown. It was the same pope Innocent whom we shall presently see the disposer of the crown of England in the reign of the tyrant John.

XV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE ELEVENTH, TWELFTH, AND PART OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. The consequence of the battle of Hastings was the submission of all England to William the Conqueror. The character of this prince was spirited, haughty, and tyrannical, yet not without a portion of the generous affections. He disgusted his English subjects by the strong partiality he shewed to his Norman followers, preferring them to all offices of trust and dignity. A conspiracy arose from these discontents, which William defeated, and avenged with signal rigour and cruelty. He determined henceforward to treat the English as a conquered people; a policy which involved his reign in perpetual commotions, which, while they robbed him of all peace of mind, aggravated the tyranny of his disposition. He deprived them of their possessions; he endeavoured to annihilate their laws and customs, and even their language, by ordering that all the public acts and pleadings of the courts should be in the Norman language. To his own children he owed the severest of his troubles. His eldest son Robert rose in rebellion, to wrest from him the sovereignty of Maine: and his

foreign subjects took part with the rebel. William led against them an army of the English, and was on the point of perishing in fight by his son's hand. Philip I. of France had aided this rebellion, which was avenged by William, who carried havoc and devastation into the heart of his kingdom, but was killed in the enterprise by a fall from his horse (1087). He died in the sixty-third year of his age, in the twenty-first of his reign over England, and the fifty-fourth of that over Normandy. He bequeathed England to William, his second son; to Robert he left Normandy; and to Henry, his youngest son, the property of his mother Matilda.

2. William the Conqueror introduced into England the feudal law, dividing the whole kingdom, except the royal demesnes, into baronies, and bestowing the most of these, under the tenure of military service, on his Norman followers. By the forest laws, he reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of killing game all over the kingdom; a restriction resented by his subjects above every other mark of servitude. Preparatory to the introduction of the feudal tenures, he planned and accomplished a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, with a distinct specification of their extent, nature, value, names of their proprietors, and an enumeration of every class of inhabitants who lived on them. This most valuable record, called *Doomsday-book*, is preserved in the English Exchequer, and is now printed.

3. William II. (surnamed Rufus, from the colour of his hair) inherited the vices without any of the virtues of his father. His reign is distinguished by no event of importance; and, after the defeat of one conspiracy in its outset, presents nothing but a dull career of unresisted despotism. After a reign of thirteen years he was killed when hunting, by the random shot of an arrow (1100). The crown of England should have devolved on his elder brother Robert; but his absence on a crusade in Palestine

made way for the unopposed succession of his younger brother Henry, who, by his marriage with Matilda, the daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and the niece of Edgar Atheling, united the last remnant of the Saxon with the Norman line, which had a beneficial effect in promoting union in the nation. With the most criminal ambition he now invaded his brother's dominions of Normandy; and Robert, on his return, was defeated in battle, and detained for life a prisoner in England. The crimes of Henry were expiated by his misfortunes. His only son was drowned in his passage from Normandy. His daughter Matilda, married first to the emperor Henry V. and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou, was destined to be his successor; but the popularity of his nephew Stephen, son of the count of Blois, defeated this intention. Henry I. died in Normandy, after a reign of thirty-five years, A.D. 1135; and, in spite of his destination to Matilda, Stephen seized the vacant throne. The party of Matilda, headed by her natural brother, the earl of Gloucester, engaged, defeated, and made Stephen prisoner. Matilda, in her turn, mounted the throne; but, unpopular from the tyranny of her disposition, she was solemnly deposed by the prevailing party of her rival, and Stephen once more restored. He found, however, in Henry Plantagenet, the son of Matilda, a more formidable competitor. Of a noble and intrepid spirit, while yet a boy, he resolved to reclaim his hereditary crown; and, landing in England, won by his prowess, and the favour of a just cause, a great part of the kingdom to his interest. By treaty with Stephen, who was allowed to reign for life, he secured the succession at his death, which soon after ensued (1154).

4. Henry II. (Plantagenet), a prince in every sense deserving of the throne, began his reign with the reformation of all the abuses of the government of his predecessors; revoking all impolitic grants, abolishing partial immunities, regulating the admi-

nistration of justice, and establishing the freedom of the towns by charters, which are at this day the basis of national liberty. Happy in the affections of his people, and powerful in the vast extent of additional territory he enjoyed on the continent in the right of his father and of his wife, the heiress of a great portion of France, his reign had every promise of prosperity and happiness; but, from one fatal source, these pleasing prospects were all destroyed. Thomas a Becket was raised by Henry from obscurity to the office of chancellor of England. On the vacancy of the see of Canterbury, the king, desirous of his aid in the correction of ecclesiastical abuses, conferred the primacy on his favourite; and the arrogant Becket availed himself of that authority to abase the prerogative of his sovereign, and exalt the spiritual power above the crown. The clergy had renounced all immediate subordination to the civil magistrate, and it was disputed whether a priest could be tried for a murder, and punished by the civil court. It was determined in the affirmative by the council of Clarendon,* against the opinion of Becket. Pope Alexander III. annulled the decree of the council; and Becket, who took part with the pope, was deprived by Henry of all his dignities and estates. He retired to France, and avenged himself by the excommunication of the king's ministers; and Henry, in return, prohibited all intercourse with the see of Rome. At length both parties found it their interest to come to a good understanding. Becket was restored to favour, and reinstated in his primacy, when the increasing insolence of his demeanour drew from the king some hasty expressions of indignation, which his servants interpreted into a sentence of proscription, and, trusting that

* To define the limits between the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdictions, Henry summoned a general council of the nobility and prelates at Clarendon, and in this council the laws called the *Constitutions* of Clarendon were voted without opposition. By these laws the permission of the king was made requisite to the taking effect of any papal act, and for appeals to Rome; and the clergy were to be tried for their crimes in the lay courts.

the deed would be grateful to their master, murdered the prelate while in the act of celebrating vespers at the altar. For this shocking action Henry expressed the regret which he sincerely felt, and the pope indulgently granted his pardon, on the assurance of his dutiful obedience to the Holy Church.

5. The most important event of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland. The Irish, an early civilized people, and among the first of the nations of the West who embraced the Christian religion, were, by frequent invasions of the Danes, and their own domestic commotions, replunged into barbarism for many ages. In the twelfth century the kingdom consisted of five separate sovereignties, Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Meath, and Connaught; but these were subdivided among an infinite number of petty chiefs, owning a very weak allegiance to their respective sovereigns. Dermot Macmorrogh, expelled from his kingdom of Leinster for a rape on the daughter of the king of Meath, sought protection from Henry, and engaged to become his feudatory, if he should recover his kingdom by the aid of the English. Henry empowered his subjects to invade Ireland; and, while Strongbow earl of Pembroke and his followers were laying waste the country, landed in the island himself in 1172, and received the submission of a great number of the independent chiefs. Roderick O'Connor, prince of Connaught, whom the Irish elected nominal sovereign of all the provinces, resisted for three years the arms of Henry, but finally acknowledged his dominion by a solemn embassy to the king at Windsor. The terms of the submission were, an annual tribute of every tenth hide of land, to be applied for the support of government, and an obligation of allegiance to the crown of England; on which conditions the Irish should retain their possessions, and Roderick his kingdom; except the territory of the Pale, or that part which the English barons had subdued before the arrival of Henry.

6. Henry divided Ireland into counties, appointed sheriffs in each, and introduced the laws of England into the territory of the Pale; the rest of the kingdom being regulated by their ancient laws, till the reign of Edward I., when, at the request of the nation, the English laws were extended to the whole kingdom; and in the first Irish Parliament, which was held in the same reign, Sir John Wogan presided as deputy of the sovereign. From that time, for some centuries, there was little intercourse between the kingdoms; nor was the island considered as fully subdued till the reign of Elizabeth, and of her successor James I.

7. The latter part of the reign of Henry II. was clouded by domestic misfortune. His children, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, instigated by their unnatural mother, rose in rebellion, and with the aid of Lewis VII., king of France, prepared to dethrone their father. While opposing them with spirit on the continent, his kingdom was invaded by the Scots under William (the Lion). He hastened back to England, defeated the Scots, and made their king his prisoner. Two of his sons, Henry and Geoffrey, expiated their offences by an early death; but Richard, once reconciled, was again seduced from his allegiance, and, in league with the king of France, plundered his father's continental dominions. The spirit of Henry was unequal to his domestic misfortunes, and he died of a broken heart in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign (1189), an ornament to the English throne, and a prince surpassing all his contemporaries in the valuable qualities of a sovereign. To him England owed her first permanent improvements in arts, in laws, in government, and in civil liberty.

8. Richard I. (Cœur de Lion), on the death of his father, expressed the greatest remorse for his former conduct, and he turned with disgust from those who had encouraged him in his rebellion, and gave his confidence to those faithful ministers who

had opposed his ambition. The love of military glory was his ruling passion, and to acquire it, he immediately on his accession embarked for the Holy Land, on a crusade against the Infidels, after plundering his subjects of an immense sum of money to defray the charges of the enterprise. Forming a league with Philip Augustus of France, the two monarchs joined their forces, and, acting for some time in concert, were successful in the taking of Acra or Ptolemais; but Philip, jealous of his rival's glory, soon returned to France, while Richard had the honour of defeating the heroic Saladin in the battle of Ascalon, with prodigious slaughter of his enemies. He prepared now for the siege of Jerusalem; but, finding his army wasted with famine and fatigue, he was compelled to end the war by a truce with Saladin, in which he obtained a free passage to the Holy Land for every Christian pilgrim. Wrecked in his voyage homeward, and travelling in disguise through Germany, Richard was seized, and detained in prison, by command of the emperor Henry VI. The king of France ungenerously opposed his release, as did his unnatural brother John, from selfish ambition; but he was at length ransomed by his subjects for the sum of 150,000 marks, and, after an absence of nine years, returned to his dominions. His traitorous brother was pardoned after some submission; and Richard employed the short residue of his reign in a spirited revenge against his rival, Philip. A truce, however, was concluded, by the mediation of Rome; and Richard was soon after killed, while storming the castle of one of his rebellious vassals in the Limosin. He died without issue in the tenth year of his reign, and forty-second of his age (1199).

9. John (Lackland) succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother, but found a competitor in his nephew Arthur, Duke of Bretagne, the son of Geoffrey, his elder brother, supported by Philip of France. War was, of course, renewed with that

country: but Arthur, with fatal confidence, throwing himself into the hands of his uncle, was removed by poison or the sword; a deed which, joined to the known tyranny of his character, rendered John the detestation of his subjects. He was stripped by Philip of his continental dominions, and he made the pope his enemy by an avaricious attack on the treasures of the church. After an ineffectual menace of vengeance, Innocent III. pronounced a sentence of interdict against the kingdom, which put a stop to all the ordinances of religion, to baptism, and the burial of the dead. He next excommunicated John, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance; and he finally deposed him, and made a gift of the kingdom to Philip. John, intimidated into submission, declared himself the pope's vassal, swore allegiance on his knees to the papal legate, and agreed to hold his kingdom tributary to the holy see. On these conditions, which ensured the universal hatred and contempt of his people, he made his peace with the church. It was natural that his subjects, thus trampled upon and sold, should vindicate their rights. The barons of the kingdom assembled, and binding themselves by oath to an union of measures, they resolutely demanded from the king a ratification of a charter of privileges granted by Henry I. John appealed to the pope, who, in support of his vassal, prohibited the confederacy of the barons as rebellious. These were only the more resolute in their purpose, and the sword was their last resource. At length John was compelled to yield to their demands, and signed at Runymede, between Windsor and Staines, 19th of June, 1215, that solemn charter, which is the foundation and bulwark of English liberty, *Magna Charta*.

10. By this great charter, 1. The freedom of election to benefices was secured to the clergy; 2. The fines to the overlord on the succession of vassals were regulated; 3. No aids or subsidies were allowed to be levied from the subject, unless in a

few special cases, without the consent of the great council; 4. The crown shall not seize the lands of a baron for a debt, while he has personal property sufficient to discharge it; 5. All the privileges granted by the king to his vassals shall be communicated by them to their inferior vassals; 6. One weight and one measure shall be used throughout the kingdom; 7. All men shall pass from and return to the realm at their pleasure; 8. All cities and boroughs shall preserve their ancient liberties; 9. The estate of every freeman shall be regulated by his will, and, if he die intestate, by the law; 10. The king's court shall be stationary and open to all; 11. Every freeman shall be fined only in proportion to his offence, and no fine shall be imposed to his utter ruin; 12. No peasant shall, by a fine, be deprived of his instruments of husbandry; 13. No person shall be tried on suspicion alone, but on the evidence of lawful witnesses; 14. No person shall be tried or punished but by the judgment of his peers and the law of the land.

11. John granted at the same time the *Charta de Foresta*, which abolished the royal privilege of killing game over all the kingdom, and restored to the lawful proprietors their woods and forests, which they were now allowed to enclose and use at their pleasure. As compulsion alone had produced these concessions, John was determined to disregard them, and a foreign force was brought into the kingdom to reduce the barons into submission. These applied for aid to France, and Philip sent his son Lewis to England with an army; and such was the people's hatred of their sovereign, that they swore allegiance to this foreigner. At this critical period John died at Newark (1216), and an instant change ensued. His son Henry III., a boy of nine years of age, was crowned at Bristol, and his uncle the earl of Pembroke appointed protector of the realm: the disaffected barons returned to their allegiance, the people hailed their sovereign, and Lewis with his army,

after an ineffectual struggle, made peace with the protector, and evacuated the kingdom.

XVI.

STATE OF GERMANY AND ITALY IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Frederick II., son of Henry VI., was elected emperor on the resignation of Otho IV., 1212. At this period Naples, Sicily, and Lombardy, were all appendages of the empire; and the contentions between the imperial and papal powers divided the states of Italy into factions, known by the name of Guelphs and Ghibellines; the former maintaining the supremacy of the pope, the latter that of the emperor. The opposition of Frederick to four successive popes was avenged by excommunication and deposition; yet he kept possession of his throne, and vindicated his authority with great spirit. Frequent attempts were made against his life, by assassination and poison, which he openly attributed to papal resentment. On his death (1250), the splendour of the empire was for many years obscured. It was a prey to incessant factions and civil war, the fruit of contested claims of sovereignty; yet the popes gained nothing by its disorders; for the troubles of Italy were equally hostile to their ambition. We have seen the turbulent state of England; France was equally weak and anarchical; Spain ravaged by the contests of the Moors and Christians. Yet, distracted as appears the situation of Europe, one great project gave a species of union to this discordant mass, of which we now proceed to give account.

XVII.

THE CRUSADES, OR HOLY WARS.*

1. The Turks or Turcomans, a race of Tartars from the regions of Mount Taurus and Imaus, invaded the dominions of Moscovy in the eleventh century, and came down upon the banks of the Caspian. The caliphs employed Turkish mercenaries; and they acquired the reputation of able soldiers in the wars that took place on occasion of the contested caliphate. The caliphs of Bagdat, the Abassidæ, were deprived, by their rival caliphs, of the race of Omar, of Syria, Egypt, and Africa; and the Turks stripped of their dominions both the Abassidæ and Ommiades. Bagdat was taken by the Turks, and the empire of the caliphs overthrown in 1055; and these princes, from temporal monarchs, became now the supreme pontiffs of the Mahometan faith, as the popes of the Christian. At the time of the first crusade, in the end of the eleventh century, Arabia was governed by a Turkish sultan, as were Persia and the greater portion of Lesser Asia. The eastern empire was thus abridged of its Asiatic territory, and had lost a great part of its dominions in Europe. It retained, however, Greece, Macedonia, Thrace, and Illyria; and Constantinople itself was populous, opulent, and luxurious. Palestine was in the possession of the Turks; and its capital, Jerusalem, fallen from its ancient consequence and splendour, was yet held in respect by its conquerors as a holy city, and constantly attracted the resort of Mahometans to the mosque of Omar, as of Christian pilgrims to the sepulchre of our Saviour.

2. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, on his return from this pilgrimage, complained in loud

* See Hereford's Gibbon, p. 485.

terms of the grievances which the Christians suffered from the Turks; and Urban II. pitched on this enthusiast as a fit person to commence the execution of a grand design which the popes had long entertained, of arming all Christendom, and exterminating the Infidels from the Holy Land. The project was opened in two general councils held at Placentia and Clermont. The French possessed more ardour than the Italians; and an immense multitude of ambitious and disorderly nobles, with all their dependants, eager for enterprise and plunder, and assured of eternal salvation, immediately took the cross. Peter the Hermit led 80,000 under his banners, and they began their march towards the East in 1095. Their progress was marked by rapine and hostility in every Christian country through which they passed; and the army of the Hermit, on its arrival at Constantinople, was wasted down to 20,000. The emperor Alexius Comnenus, to whom the crusaders behaved with the most provoking insolence and folly, conducted himself with admirable moderation and good sense. He hastened to get rid of this disorderly multitude, by furnishing them with every aid which they required, and cheerfully lent his ships to transport them across the Bosphorus. The sultan Solyman met them on the plain of Nicea, and cut to pieces the army of the Hermit. A new host in the mean time arrived at Constantinople, led by more illustrious commanders; by Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Brabant, Raymond count of Thoulouse, Robert of Normandy, son of William king of England, Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the conqueror of Sicily, and other princes of high reputation. To these, who amounted to some hundred thousands, Alexius manifested the same prudent conduct, to accelerate their departure. The Turks, overpowered by numbers, were twice defeated, and the crusaders pursuing their successes, penetrated at length to Jerusalem, which, after a siege of six weeks, they took by storm, and with savage fury massacred

the whole of its Mahometan and Jewish inhabitants (A.D. 1099). Godfrey was hailed King of Jerusalem, but was obliged soon after to cede his kingdom to the pope's legate. The crusaders divided Syria and Palestine, and formed four separate states, which weakened their power. The Turks began to recover strength; and the Christian states of Asia soon found it necessary to solicit aid from Europe.

3. The second crusade set out from the West in 1146, to the amount of 200,000 French, Germans, and Italians, led by Hugh, brother to Philip I. of France. These met with the same fate which attended the army of Peter the Hermit. The garrison of Jerusalem was at this time so weak, that it became necessary to embody and arm the monks for its defence, and hence arose the military orders of the Knights Templars and Hospitallers, and soon after the Teutonic, from the German pilgrims. Meantime pope Eugenius III. employed St. Bernard to preach up a new crusade in France, which was headed by its sovereign Lewis VII. (the Young), who in conjunction with Conrad III. emperor of Germany, mustered jointly 300,000 men. The Germans were cut to pieces by the sultan of Iconium; the French were totally defeated near Laodicea; and the two monarchs, after much disaster, returned with shame to their dominions.

4. The illustrious Saladin, nephew of the sultan of Egypt, formed the design of recovering Palestine from the Christians; and besieging Jerusalem, he took the city, and made prisoner its sovereign, Guy of Lusignan. Pope Clement III. alarmed at the successes of the Infidels, began to stir up a new crusade from France, England, and Germany; and the armies of each country were headed by their respective sovereigns, Philip Augustus, Richard I., and Frederick Barbarossa. In this third crusade, the emperor Frederick died in Asia, and his army, by repeated defeats, mouldered to nothing. The English and French were more successful; they besieged

and took Ptolemais; but Richard and Philip quarrelled from jealousy of each other's glory, and the French monarch returned in disgust to his country. Richard nobly sustained the contest with Saladin, whom he defeated near Ascalon; but his army was reduced by famine and fatigue; and concluding a treaty, at least not dishonourable, with his enemy, he was forced at length to escape from Palestine with a single ship. (See *supra*, Sect. XV. § 8.) Saladin, revered even by the Christians, died 1195.

5. A fourth crusade was fitted out in 1202, under Baldwin count of Flanders, of which the object was not the extirpation of the Infidels, but the destruction of the empire of the East. Constantinople, embroiled by civil war and revolution, from disputed claims to the sovereignty, was besieged and taken by the crusaders; and Baldwin, their chief, was elected emperor, to be within a few months dethroned and murdered. The imperial dominions were shared among the principal leaders; and the Venetians, who had lent their ships for the expedition, got the isle of Candia (anciently Crete) for their reward. Alexius, of the imperial family of the Comneni, founded a new sovereignty in Asia, which he termed the empire of Trebizond. The object of a fifth crusade was to lay waste Egypt, in revenge for an attack on Palestine by its sultan Saphadin. Partial success and ultimate ruin was the issue of this expedition, as of all the preceding.

6. At this period, 1227, a great revolution took place in Asia. Gengiskan with his Tartars broke down from the north upon Persia and Syria, and massacred indiscriminately Turks, Jews, and Christians, who opposed them. The Christian Knights Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic, made a desperate but ineffectual resistance; and Palestine must have been abandoned to these invaders, had not its fate been for a while retarded by the last crusade under Lewis IX. of France. This prince, summoned, as he believed, by Heaven, after four years'

preparation, set out for the Holy Land, with his queen, his three brothers, and all the knights of France. His army began their enterprise by an attack on Egypt, where, after some considerable successes, they were at length utterly defeated, and the French monarch, with two of his brothers, fell into the hands of the enemy. He purchased his liberty at an immense ransom, and, returning to France, reigned prosperously and wisely for thirteen years. But the same frenzy again assailing him, he embarked on a crusade against the Moors in Africa, where his army was destroyed by a pestilence, and he himself became its victim (1270). It is computed that, in the whole of the crusades to Palestine, two millions of Europeans were buried in the east.

7. *Effects of the Crusades.*—One consequence of the holy wars is supposed to have been the improvement of European manners; but the times immediately succeeding the crusades exhibit no such actual improvement. Two centuries of barbarism and darkness elapsed between the termination of those enterprises and the fall of the Greek empire in 1453, the era of the revival of letters, and the commencement of civilization. A certain consequence of the crusades was the change of territorial property in all the feudal kingdoms, the sale of the estates of the nobles, and their division among a number of smaller proprietors. Hence the feudal aristocracy was weakened, and the lower classes began to acquire weight, and a spirit of independence. The towns, hitherto bound by a sort of vassalage to the nobles, began to purchase their immunity, acquired the right of electing their own magistrates, and were governed by their own municipal laws.—The church in some respects gained, and in others lost, by those enterprises. The popes gained a more extended jurisdiction; but the fatal issue of those expeditions opened the eyes of the world to the selfish and interested motives which had prompted them, and weakened the sway of superstition. Many of the

religious orders acquired an increase of wealth; but this was balanced by the taxes imposed on the clergy. The coin was altered and debased in most of the kingdoms of Europe, from the scarcity of specie. The Jews were supposed to have hoarded and concealed it, and they became hence the victims of general persecution. The most substantial gainers by the crusades were the Italian states of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, from the increased trade to the Levant for the supply of those immense armies. Venice, as we have seen, took an active concern, and obtained her share of the conquered territory.

The age of the crusades brought chivalry to its perfection, and gave rise to romantic fiction.

XVIII.

OF CHIVALRY AND ROMANCE.

1. CHIVALRY arose naturally from the condition of society in those ages in which it prevailed. Among the Germanic nations, the profession of arms was esteemed the sole employment that deserved the name of manly or honourable. The initiation of the youth to this profession was attended with peculiar solemnity and appropriate ceremonies. The chief of the tribe bestowed the sword and armour on his vassals, as a symbol of their being devoted to his service. In the progress of the feudal system, these vassals, in imitation of their chief, assumed the power of conferring arms on their sub-vassals, with a similar form of mysterious and pompous ceremonial. The candidate for knighthood underwent his preparatory fasts and vigils, and received on his knees the *accollade* and benediction of his chief. Armed and caparisoned, he sallied forth in quest of adventure, which, whether just or not in its purpose, was ever esteemed honourable in proportion as it was perilous.

2. The high esteem of the female sex is charac-

teristic of the Gothic manners. In those ages of barbarism, the castles of the greater barons were in miniature the courts of sovereigns. The society of the ladies, who found only in such fortresses a security from outrage, polished the manners; and to protect the chastity and honour of the fair, was the best employ and highest merit of an accomplished knight. Romantic exploit had, therefore, always a tincture of gallantry:—

It hath been through all ages ever seen,
  That with the praise of arms and chivalry
The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
  And that for reason's special privity;
For either doth on other much rely;
  For he, me seems, most fit the fair to serve,
That can her best defend from villany;
  And she most fit his service doth deserve
That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.
Spenser's Faery Queen.

3. To the passion for adventure and romantic love were added very high ideas of morality and religion; but, as the latter were ever subordinate to the former, we may presume more in favour of their refinement than of their purity. It was the pride of a knight to redress wrongs and injuries; but in that honourable employment he made small account of those he committed; and it was easy to expiate the greatest offences by a penance or a pilgrimage, which furnished only a new opportunity for adventurous exploit.

4. Chivalry, whether it began with the Moors or Normans, attained its perfection at the period of the crusades, which presented a noble object of adventure, and a boundless field for military glory. Few, it is true, returned from those desperate enterprises, but those few had a high reward in the admiration of their countrymen. The bards and romancers sung their praises, and recorded their exploits, with a thousand circumstances of fabulous embellishment.

5. The earliest of the old romances (so termed from the Romance language, a mixture of the Frank

and Latin, in which they were written) appeared about the middle of the twelfth century, the period of the second crusade. But those more ancient compositions did not record contemporary events, whose known truth would have precluded all liberty of fiction or exaggeration. Geoffrey of Monmouth, and the author who assumed the name of Archbishop Turpin, had free scope to their fancy, by celebrating the deeds of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, and the exploits of Charlemagne and his Twelve Peers; and from the fruitful stock of those first romances sprung a numerous offspring, equally wild and extravagant.

6. Philosophers have analyzed the pleasure arising from works of fiction, and have endeavoured, by various hypotheses, to account for the interest we take in the description of an event or scene which we know to be utterly impossible. We may account thus simply for the phenomenon: Every narration is in some degree attended with a dramatic deception. We enter for the time into the situation of the persons concerned. Adopting their passions and their feelings, we lose for a moment all sense of the absurdity of their cause, whilst we see the agents themselves hold it for reasonable and adequate. The most incredulous sceptic may sympathize strongly with the feelings of Hamlet at the sight of his father's spectre.

7. Thus powerfully affected as we are by sympathy, even against the conviction of our reason, how much greater must have been the effect of such works of the imagination in those days, when popular superstition gave full credit to the reality, or at least the possibility, of all that they described! And hence we must censure, as both unnecessary and improbable, that theory of Dr. Hurd, which accounts for all the wildness of the old romances, on the supposition that their fictions were entirely allegorical; which explains the giants and savages into the oppressive feudal lords and their barbarous dependants; as

M. Mallet construes the serpents and dragons which guarded the enchanted castles, into their winding walls, fossés, and battlements. It were sufficient to say, that many of those old romances are inexplicable by allegory. They were received by the popular belief as truths, and even their contrivers believed in the possibility of the scenes and actions they described. In latter ages, and in the wane of superstition, yet while it still retained a powerful influence, the poets adopted allegory as a vehicle of moral instruction: and to this period belong those poetical romances which bear an allegorical explanation; as the *Faery Queen* of Spenser, the *Orlando* of Ariosto, nd the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso.

8. In more modern times the taste for romantic omposition declined with popular credulity; and the fastidiousness of philosophy affected to treat all supernatural fiction with contempt. But it was at length perceived that this refinement had cut off a source of very high mental enjoyment. The public taste now took a new turn; and this moral revolution is at present tending to its extreme. We are gone back to the nursery to listen to tales of hobgoblins; a change which we may safely prognosticate can be of no long duration.

XIX.

STATE OF EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. CONSTANTINOPLE, taken in 1202 by the crusaders, was possessed only for a short time by its conquerors. It was governed by French emperors for the space of sixty years, and was taken by the Greeks, in 1261, under Michael Palæologus, who, by imprisoning and putting out the eyes of his pupil Theodore Lascaris, secured to himself the sovereignty.

2. Germany was governed in the beginning of the thirteenth century by Frederick II., who paid homage to the pope for the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, possessed by his son Conrad, and afterwards by his brother Manfred, who usurped the crown, in violation of the right of his nephew Conradin. Pope Clement IV., jealous of the dominion of the imperial family, gave the investiture of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Lewis IX. of France, who defeated and put to death his competitors. The Sicilians revenged this act of usurpation and cruelty by the murder, in one night, of every Frenchman in the island. This shocking massacre, termed the *Sicilian Vespers*, happened on Easter Sunday, 1282. It was followed by every evil that comes in the train of civil war and revolution.

3. The beginning of the thirteenth century had been signalized by a new species of crusade. The Albigenses, inhabitants of Alby in the Pays de Vaud, were bold enough to dispute many of the tenets of the Catholic church, as judging them contrary to the doctrines of Scripture. Innocent III. established a holy commission at Thoulouse, with power to try and punish these heretics. The count of Thoulouse opposed this persecution, and was, for the punishment of his offence, compelled by the pope to assist in a crusade against his own vassals. The famous Simon de Montfort was the leader of this pious enterprise, which was marked by the most atrocious cruelties, and thousands of the Albigenses were burnt or massacred without mercy. The benefits of the holy commission were judged by the popes to be so great, that it became from that time a permanent establishment, known by the name of *the Inquisition.*

4. The rise of the house of Austria may be dated from 1274, when Rodolphus of Hapsbourg, a Swiss baron, was elected emperor of Germany. He owed his elevation to the jealousies of the electoral princes, who could not agree in the choice of any

one of themselves. Ottocar, king of Bohemia, to whom Rodolphus had been steward of the household, could ill brook the supremacy of his former dependant; and refusing him the customary homage for his Germanic possessions, Rodolphus stripped him of Austria, which has ever since remained in the family of its conqueror.

5. The Italian states of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, were at this time flourishing and opulent, while most of the kingdoms of Europe (if we except England under Edward I.) were exhausted, feeble, and disorderly. A dawning of civil liberty began to appear in France under Philip IV. *(le Bel)*, who summoned the third estate to the national assemblies, which had hitherto consisted of the nobility and clergy (1308). It was the same prince who established perpetual courts of judicature in France, under the name of parliaments. Over these the parliament of Paris possessed a jurisdiction by appeal; but it was not till latter times that it assumed any authority in matters of state.

6. The parliament of England had before this era begun to assume its present constitution. The Commons, or the representatives of counties and boroughs, were first called to parliament by Henry III.; before that time, this assembly consisted only of the greater barons and clergy. But of the rise and progress of the constitution of England we shall afterwards treat more particularly in a separate section.

7. The spirit of the popedom, zealous in the maintenance and extension of its prerogatives, continued much the same in the thirteenth and fourteenth, as we have seen it in the three preceding centuries. Philip the Fair had subjected his clergy to bear their share of the public taxes, and prohibited all contributions to be levied by the pope in his dominions. This double offence was highly resented by Boniface VIII., who expressed his indignation by a sentence of excommunication and interdict and a solemn

transference of the kingdom of France to the emperor Albert. Philip, in revenge, sent his general Nogaret to Rome, who threw the pope into prison. The French, however, were overpowered by the papal troops; and the death of Boniface put an end to the quarrel.

8. It is less easy to justify the conduct of Philip the Fair to the Knights Templars than his behaviour to pope Boniface. The whole of this order had incurred his resentment, from suspicion of harbouring treasonable designs, but principally on account of their great wealth and the irregularity of their lives. He had influence with Clement V. to procure a papal bull, warranting their extirpation from all the Christian kingdoms: and this infamous proscription was carried into effect all over Europe. These unfortunate men were solemnly tried, not for their real offence, but for pretended impieties and idolatrous practices, and many of them were committed to the flames (1309—1312). Their property was transferred to the knights of Malta, who about this time had taken the island of Rhodes from the Turks.

XX.

REVOLUTION OF SWITZERLAND.

1. THE beginning of the fourteenth century was distinguished by the revolution of Switzerland, and the rise of the Helvetic republic. The emperor Rodolphus of Hapsbourg was hereditary sovereign of several of the Swiss Cantons, and governed his states with much equity and moderation; but his son and successor Albert, a tyrannical prince, formed the design of annexing the whole of the provinces to his dominion, and erecting them into a principality for one of his sons. The cantons of Schewitz, Ury, and Underwald, which had always resisted the authority of Austria, combined to assert their freedom; and a small army of 400 or 500 men defeated an

immense host of the Austrians in the mountainous and rocky pass of Morgate (1315). The rest of the cantons by degrees joined the association, and with invincible perseverance, after sixty pitched battles with their enemies, they won and secured their dear-bought liberty.

2. *Constitution of Switzerland.*—The thirteen cantons were united by a solemn treaty, which stipulated the proportional succours to be furnished by each in the case of foreign hostility, and the measures to be followed for securing the union of the states, and accommodating domestic differences. With respect to its internal government and economy, each canton was independent. Of some the constitution was monarchical, and of others republican. All matters touching the general league were transacted either by letters sent to Zurich, and thence officially circulated to all the cantons, or by conferences. The general diet, where two deputies attended from each canton, was held once a-year, the first deputy of Zurich presiding. The Catholic and Protestant cantons likewise held their separate diets on occasional emergencies.

3 The Swiss, when at peace, employed their troops for hire in foreign service, judging it a wise policy to keep alive the military spirit of the nation; and the armies thus employed have been equally distinguished for their courage and fidelity. The industry and economy of the Swiss are proverbial; and their country supports a most abundant population, from the zealous promotion of agriculture and manufactures.

XXI.

STATE OF EUROPE (CONTINUED) IN THE THIRTEENTH, FOURTEENTH, AND PART OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. The rival claims of superiority between the popes and emperors still continued Henry VII.,

the successor of Albert, vindicated his right by the sword, triumphantly fought his way to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned, and imposed a tribute on all the states of Italy. His sudden death was suspected to be the consequence of papal resentment. It was in his time that the seat of the popedom was transferred by Clement V. from Rome to Avignon, 1309, where it remained till 1377. The factions of Italy were the cause of this removal. Lewis of Bavaria, the successor of Henry, deprived and excommunicated by John XXII., revenged himself by deposing the pope. This pontiff, who had originally been a cobler, surpassed the most of his predecessors in pride and tyranny. He kept his seat on the papal chair, and left at his death an immense treasure, accumulated by the sale of benefices, while his rival the emperor died in indigence.

2. His successor in the empire, Charles IV., king of Bohemia, published, in 1355, the imperial constitution termed *The Golden Bull*, the fundamental law of the Germanic body, which reduced the number of electors to seven, and settled on them all the hereditary offices of state.* These exemplified their new rights, by deposing his son Wenceslaus for incapacity (1400). Three separate factions of the French and Italian cardinals having elected three separate popes, the emperor Sigismund judged this division of the church to be a fit opportunity for his interference, to reconcile all differences, and establish his own supremacy. He summoned a general council at Constance 1414, and ended the dispute, by degrading all the three pontiffs, and naming a fourth, Martin Colonna. This division of the papacy is termed the *great schism of the West*.

3. The spiritual business of the council of Constance was no less important than its temporal. John Huss, a disciple of Wickliff, was tried for he-

* These electors were the archbishops of Mentz, Cologne, and Treves, the king of Bohemia, the Count-Palatine, the duke of Savoy, and the Margrave of Brandenburg.

resy, in denying the hierarchy, and satirizing the immoralities of the popes and bishops. He did not deny the charge; and refusing to confess his errors, was burnt alive. A similar fate was the portion of his friend and disciple, Jerome of Prague, who displayed at his execution the eloquence of an apostle, and the constancy of a martyr (1416). Sigismund felt the consequence of these horrible proceedings; for the Bohemians opposed his succession to their vacant crown, and it cost him a war of sixteen years to attain it.

4. Whatever was the imperial power at this time, it derived but small consequence from its actual revenues. The wealth of the Germanic states was exclusively possessed by their separate sovereigns, and the emperor had little more than what he drew from Bohemia and Hungary. The sovereignty of Italy was an empty title. The interest of the emperor in that country furnished only a source of faction to its princes, and embroiled the states in perpetual quarrels. A series of conspiracies and civil tumults form, for above 200 years, the annals of the principal cities. Naples and Sicily were ruined by the weak and disorderly government of the two Joannas. A passion which the younger of these conceived for a soldier of the name of Sforza, raised him to the sovereignty of Milan; and her adoption, first of Alphonso of Arragon, and afterwards of Lewis of Anjou, laid the foundation of those contests between Spain and France for the sovereignty of the two Sicilies, which afterwards agitated all Europe.

XXII.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Henry III., who, at nine years of age, succeeded to the crown of England on the death of his father John, was a prince of amiable dispositions, but

of weak understanding. His preference for foreign favourites disgusted his nobles; and the want of economy in his government, and oppressive exactions, deprived him of the affection of his people. Montfort earl of Leicester, son of the leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, and brother-in-law of the king, conceived a plan for usurping the government; and forming a league with the barons, on the pretext of reforming abuses, compelled Henry to delegate all the regal power into the hands of twenty-four of their number. These divided among themselves the offices of government, and new-modelled the parliament, by summoning a certain number of knights chosen from each county, a measure fatal to their own power, for these representatives of the people, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, determined to restore the royal authority; and they called on prince Edward, a youth of intrepid spirit, to avenge his father's wrongs, and save the kingdom.

2. Leicester raised a formidable force, and, in a successful engagement, at Lewes in Sussex (1264), defeated the royal army, and made both the king and prince his prisoners. He now compelled the impotent Henry to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty; and assuming the character of regent, he called a parliament, summoning two knights from each of the counties, and deputies from the principal boroughs, the first regular plan of the English House of Commons. This assembly exercising its just rights, and asserting with firmness the re-establishment of the ancient government of the kingdom, Leicester judged it prudent to release the prince from his confinement; and Edward was no sooner at liberty, than he took the field against the usurper, who, in the battle of Evesham, 4th of August, 1265, was defeated and slain. Henry was now restored to his throne by the arms of his gallant son, who, after establishing domestic tranquillity, embarked in the last crusade with Lewis IX., and signalized his prowess by many valorous exploits in Palestine. He

had the honour of concluding an advantageous truce for ten years with the sultan of Babylon, and was on his return to England when he received intelligence of his accession to the crown by the death of his father (1272).

3. Edward I., in the beginning of his reign, projected the conquest of Wales. The Welsh, the descendants of the ancient Britons who had escaped the Roman and Saxon conquests, preserved their liberty, their laws, their manners, and their language. Their prince, Llewellyn, refusing his customary homage, Edward invaded Wales, and surrounding the army of the prince, who retreated to the mountains, cut off all his supplies, and compelled him to an unqualified submission. The terms demanded were, the surrender of the country between Cheshire and the river Conway, a large sum of money, and an obligation of perpetual fealty to the crown of England. The Welsh, provoked by the insolence of the English borderers, infringed this treaty; and Edward marched his army into the heart of the country, where the troops of Llewellyn made a most desperate but ineffectual resistance. In a decisive engagement, in 1283, the prince was slain. His brother David, betrayed into the hand of the conqueror, was inhumanly executed on a gibbet; and Wales, completely subdued, was annexed to the crown of England. With a policy equally absurd and cruel, Edward ordered the Welsh bards to be put to death wherever found; thereby ensuring the perpetuation of their heroic songs, and increasing the abhorrence of the vanquished people for their barbarous conqueror.

4. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. The designs of this enterprising monarch on the kingdom of Scotland invite our attention to that quarter; but previously require a short retrospect to its earlier history.

XXIII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE ELEVENTH TO THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. The history of Scotland, before the reign of Malcolm III., surnamed Canmore, is obscure, from the deficiency of historical records. This prince, by the defeat of Macbeth, the murderer of his father Duncan, succeeded to the throne in 1057; and espousing the cause of Edgar Atheling, heir of the Saxon kings of England, whose sister he married; he thus provoked a war with William the Conqueror, which was equally prejudicial to both kingdoms. In an expedition of Malcolm into England, it is alleged that, after concluding a truce, he was compelled by William to do homage for his kingdom. The truth is, that this homage was done for the territories in Cumberland and Northumberland won by the Scots, and held in vassalage of the English crown, though this homage was afterwards absurdly made the pretext of a claim of feudal sovereignty over all Scotland. Malcolm, during his reign, supported a spirited contest with England, both under William I. and his son Rufus; and to the virtues of his queen Margaret, his kingdom in its domestic policy, owed a degree of civilization remarkable in those ages of barbarism. Malcolm was killed whilst besieging Alnwick, in the twenty-seventh year of his reign. He was succeeded by his third son Edgar, who died after an undisturbed reign of about nine years (1106).

2. Alexander I. succeeded, as next brother to Edgar; he defended, with equal spirit and good policy, the independence of the church of Scotland,*

* The archbishops of Canterbury and York claimed a spiritual superiority over Scotland, and a right to consecrate the archbishop of St. Andrew's, the primate of that kingdom. This claim was successfully resisted by Alexander, notwithstanding the hostile interference of the pope.

and of his kingdom; and his son David I., celebrated even by the democratic Buchanan, as an honour to his country and to monarchy, won from Stephen, and annexed to his crown, the whole earldom of Northumberland. In those reigns we hear of no claim of the feudal subjection of Scotland to the crown of England; though the accidental fortune of war afterwards furnished a ground for it. William I. (the Lion), taken prisoner at Alnwick by Henry II., was compelled, as the price of his release, to do homage for his whole kingdom; an obligation which his successor Richard voluntarily discharged, as deeming it to have been unjustly extorted.

3. On the death of Alexander III. without male issue, in 1285, Bruce and Baliol, descendants of David I. by the female line, were competitors for the crown, and the pretensions of each were supported by a formidable party in the kingdom. Edward I. of England, chosen umpire of the contest, arrogated to himself, in that character, the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelling all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and taking actual possession of the country by his troops. He then adjudged the crown to Baliol, on the express condition of his swearing fealty to him as lord paramount. Baliol, however, soon after renouncing his allegiance, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense force, and compelled the weak prince to abdicate the throne, and resign the kingdom into his hands.

4. William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes whom history records, restored the fallen honours of his country. Joined by a few patriots, his first successes in attacking the English garrisons brought numbers to his patriotic standard. Their successes were signal and conspicuous; victory followed upon victory, and while Edward was engaged on the continent, his troops were utterly defeated in a desperate engagement at Stirling, and forced to evacuate

the kingdom. Wallace, the deliverer of his country, now assumed the title of governor of Scotland under Baliol, who was Edward's prisoner; a distinction which was followed by the envy and disaffection of many of the nobles, and the consequent diminution of his army. The Scots were defeated at Falkirk. Edward returned with a vast accession of force; and, after a fruitless resistance, the Scottish barons finally obtained peace by a capitulation, from which the brave Wallace was excepted by name. A fugitive for some time, he was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who put him to death with every circumstance of cruelty that barbarous revenge could dictate (1304).

5. Scotland found a second champion and deliverer in Robert Bruce, the grandson of the competitor with Baliol; who, deeply resenting the humiliation of his country, once more set up the standard of war, and gave defiance to the English monarch, to whom his father and grandfather had meanly sworn allegiance. Under this intrepid leader the spirit of the nation was roused at once: the English were attacked in every quarter, and once more entirely driven out of the kingdom. Robert Bruce was crowned king at Scone, 1306; and Edward, advancing with an immense army, died at Burgh on the Sands, near Carlisle, 7th July 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, enjoining it with his last breath to his son Edward II. to prosecute the war with the Scots to the entire reduction of the country.

XXIV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. In the reign of Edward I. we observe the constitution of England gradually advancing. The

commons had been admitted to parliament in the latter period of his father Henry III. A statute was passed by Edward, which declared, that no tax or impost should be levied without the consent of lords and commons. The same monarch ratified the *Magna Charta* no less than eleven times in the course of his reign; and henceforward this fundamental law began to be regarded as sacred and unalterable.

2. Edward II. was in character the very opposite of his father, weak, indolent, and capricious, but of humane and benevolent affections. He disgusted his nobles by his attachment to mean and undeserving favourites, whom he raised to the highest dignities of the state, and honoured with his exclusive confidence. Piers Gaveston, a vicious and trifling minion, whom the king appointed regent when on a journey to Paris to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, disgusted the barons to such a pitch, that they compelled the king to delegate all the authority of government to certain commissioners, and to abandon his favourite to their resentment. He was doomed to perpetual imprisonment, and, on attempt to escape, was seized and beheaded.

3. Edward, in obedience to his father's will, invaded Scotland with 100,000 men. King Robert Bruce met this immense force with 30,000 at Bannockburn, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter (June 25, 1314). This important victory secured the independency of Scotland. Edward escaped by sea to his own dominions; and a new favourite, Spencer, supplying the place of Gaveston, his undeserved elevation and overbearing character completed the disaffection of the nobles to their sovereign. The queen, a vicious adulteress, joined the malcontents, and, passing over to France, obtained from her brother Charles IV. an army to invade England and dethrone her husband. Her enterprise was successful. Spencer and his father were betrayed into the hands of their enemies, and perished on a scaffold. The king was taken pri-

soner, tried by parliament, and solemnly deposed; and, being confined to prison, was soon after put to death with unexampled circumstances of cruelty (1327).

4. Edward III., crowned at fourteen years of age, could not submit to the regency of a mother stained with the foulest of crimes. His father's death was revenged by the perpetual imprisonment of Isabella, and the public execution of her paramour Mortimer. Bent on the conquest of Scotland, Edward marched to the north with a prodigious army, vanquished the Scots in the battle of Halidoun-hill, and placed Edward Baliol, his vassal and tributary, on the throne. But the kingdom was as repugnant as ever to the rule of England, and a favourable opportunity was taken for the renewal of hostilities, on the departure of Edward for a foreign enterprise, which gave full scope to his ambition.

5. On the death of Charles IV. without male issue, the crown of France was claimed by Edward III. of England, in right of his mother, the sister of Charles, while, in the mean time, the throne was occupied by the male heir, Philip of Valois, grandson of Philip III.* Edward fitted out an immense armament by sea and land; and, obtaining a signal victory over the French fleet, landed on the coast of Normandy, and, with his son, the Black Prince, ran a career of the most glorious exploits. Philip, with 100,000 men, met the English with 30,000, and was entirely defeated in the field of Cressy (August 26, 1348). Here the English are said for the first time

* The opinion had long prevailed that the crown of France could never descend to a female, and this maxim was supposed to be confirmed by a clause in the Salian code. It had gathered strength from frequent precedents in the first and second races. During the third race, the crown had descended from father to son for eleven generations; and thus during a period of 900 years the monarchy of France had been governed by males, and no female; and none who founded his title on a female had ever mounted the throne.—*Hume.*

In every point of view the claim of Edward was unjust, for if the Salic law was not valid, the claims of the daughters of the three last monarchs were superior to his; if it was valid, all female claims were alike extinguished.

to have used artillery in battle. Fire-arms are thus but a recent invention (1340), and have much contributed to lessen both the slaughter and the frequency of wars. Mr. Hume observes, that war is now reduced nearly to a matter of calculation. A nation knows its power; and, when overmatched, either yields to its enemies, or secures itself by alliance. But late events have given some contradiction to these opinions. Calais, taken by the English, remained in their possession for 210 years.

6. The Scots, in the mean time, invading England, were defeated in the battle of Durham, by Philippa, the heroic queen of Edward III., and their sovereign David II. led prisoner to London. A truce concluded between Edward and Philip was dissolved by the death of the latter, and the succession of his son John, who took the field with 60,000 men against the Black Prince, and was defeated by him with a far inferior number in the signal battle of Poictiers (September 19, 1356). John, king of France, was led in triumph to London, the fellow-prisoner of David, king of Scotland. But England derived from these victories nothing but honour. The French continued the war with great vigour during the captivity of their sovereign, who died in London, 1364; and they obtained a peace by the cession to the English of Poitou, St. Onge, Perigord, &c., while Edward consented to renounce his claim to the crown of France. The death of the Black Prince, in the forty-sixth year of his age (1376), a most heroic and virtuous character, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who did not long survive him.

7. Richard II. succeeded his grandfather (1377), at the age of eleven. Charles VI. soon after became king of France at the age of twelve, and both kingdoms suffered from the distractions attending a regal minority. In England the contests for power between the king's uncles, Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, embroiled all public measures, and the

consequent disorders required a stronger hand to compose them than that of the weak and facile Richard. Taking advantage of the king's absence, then engaged in quelling an insurrection in Ireland, Henry of Lancaster rose in open rebellion, and compelled Richard, at his return, to resign the crown. The parliament confirmed his deposition, and he was soon after privately assassinated. Thus began the contentions between the houses of York and Lancaster.

XXV.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.—STATE OF MANNERS.

1. Henry IV. ascended the throne on the deposition of Richard II. (1399), and had immediately to combat a rebellion raised by the earl of Northumberland, for placing Mortimer, earl of March, the heir of the house of York, on the throne. The Scotch and Welsh took part with the rebels, but their united forces were defeated at Shrewsbury, and their leader, young Percy (Hotspur), killed on the field. A second rebellion, headed by the archbishop of York, was quelled by the capital punishment of its author. The secular arm was rigorously extended against the followers of Wickliff, and this reign saw the first detestable examples of religious persecution. The life of Henry was imbittered by the youthful disorders of his son the prince of Wales, who afterwards nobly redeemed his character. Henry IV. died 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

2. Henry V. took advantage of the disorders of France, from the temporary insanity of its sovereign Charles VI., and the factious struggles for power between the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans, to invade the kingdom with a large army, which a con-

tagious distemper wasted down to a fifth of its numbers; yet with this handful of resolute and hardy troops he defeated the French army of 60,000, under the constable d'Albert, in the famous battle of Agincourt, in which 10,000 of the enemy were slain, and 14,000 made prisoners (Oct. 24, 1415). Returning to England to recruit his forces, he landed again with an army of 25,000, and fought his way to Paris. The insane monarch, with his court, fled to Troye, and Henry pursuing, terminated the war by a treaty with the queen-mother and the duke of Burgundy, by which it was agreed that he should marry the daughter of Charles VI. and receive the kingdom of France as her dowry, which, till the death of her father, he should govern as regent.

3. Meantime the return of Henry to England gave the dauphin hopes of the recovery of his kingdom. He was victorious in an engagement with the English under the duke of Clarence: but his success was of no longer duration than the absence of the English sovereign, who was himself hastening to the period of his triumphs. Seized with a mortal distemper, Henry died in the thirty-fourth year of his age (1422), one of the most heroic princes that ever swayed the sceptre of England. His brother, the duke of Bedford, was declared regent of France, and Henry VI., an infant nine months old, was proclaimed king at Paris and at London (1422).

4. Charles VII. recovered France by slow degrees. With the aid of a young female enthusiast, the Maid of Orleans, whom the credulity of the age supposed to be inspired by Heaven, he gained several important advantages over the English, which the latter inhumanly revenged, by burning this heroine as a sorceress. Her death was of equal advantage to the French as her life had been. The government of the English was universally detested: it was a struggle of many years; but at length, in 1450, they were deprived of all they had ever possessed in France, except Calais and Guignes.

Charles, when he had restored his kingdom to peace, governed it with admirable wisdom and moderation.

5. The state of England and of France, the two most polished kingdoms in Europe, furnishes a good criterion of the condition of society in those ages of which we have been treating. Even in the large cities, the houses were roofed with thatch, and had no chimneys. Glass windows were extremely rare, and the floors were covered with straw. In England, wine was sold only in the shops of the apothecaries. Paper made from linen rags was first manufactured in the beginning of the fifteenth century; and the use of linen for shirts was at that time a very rare piece of luxury. Yet it appears, that even before that age the progress of luxury had excited a serious alarm; for the parliament under Edward III. found it necessary to prohibit the use of gold and silver in apparel to all who had not £100. a-year; and Charles VI. of France ordained, that none should presume to entertain with more than two dishes and a mess of soup. Before the reign of Edward I. the whole country of England was plundered by robbers in great bands, who laid waste entire villages; and some of the household officers of Henry III. excused themselves for robbing on the highway, because the king allowed them no wages. In 1303, the abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for robbing the king's exchequer, but acquitted. The admirable laws of Edward I., which acquired him the title of the English Justinian, give strong testimony of the miserable policy and barbarism of the preceding times.

XXVI.

DECLINE AND FALL OF THE GREEK EMPIRE.

1. In the fourteenth century the Turks were proceeding by degrees to encroach on the frontiers of the

Greek empire.* The sultan Ottoman had fixed the seat of his government at Byrsa in Bithynia, and his son Orcan extended his sovereignty to the Propontis, and obtained in marriage the daughter of the emperor John Cantacuzenos. About the middle of the century, the Turks crossed over into Europe, and took Adrianople. The emperor John Palæologus, after meanly soliciting aid from the pope, concluded a humiliating treaty with sultan Amurat, and gave his son as a hostage to serve in the Turkish army.

2. Bajazet, the successor of Amurat, compelled the emperor to destroy his fort of Galata, and to admit a Turkish judge into the city. He prepared now to besiege Constantinople in form, when he was forced to change his purpose, and defend himself against the victorious Tamerlane.

3. Timur-bek, or Tamerlane, a prince of the Usbek Tartars, and descended from Gengiskan, after the conquest of Persia, and a great part of India and Syria, was invited by the Asiatic princes, enemies of Bajazet, to protect them against the Ottoman power, which threatened to overwhelm them. Tamerlane, flattered by this request, imperiously summoned the Turk to renounce his conquests; a message answered with a proud defiance. The armies met near Angoria (Ancyra) in Phrygia, and Bajazet was totally defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane (1402). The conqueror made Samarcand the capital of his empire, and there received the homage of all the princes of the East. Illiterate himself, he was solicitous for the cultivation of literature and science in his dominions; and Samarcand became for a while the seat of learning, politeness, and the arts, but was destined to relapse, after a short period, into its ancient barbarism.

4. The Turks, after the death of Tamerlane, resumed their purpose of destroying the empire of the

* See Hereford's Gibbon, chap. 47, for an account of the rise and progress of the Ottomans.

East. Amurat II., a prince of a singular character, had, on the faith of a solemn treaty with the king of Poland, devoted his days to retirement and study. A violation of the treaty, by an attack from the Poles on his dominions, made him quit his solitude. He engaged and cut to pieces the Polish army, with their perfidious sovereign, and then calmly returned to his retreat, till a similar crisis of public expediency once more brought him into active life. He left his dominions to his son Mahomet II. surnamed the Great, who resumed the project for the destruction of Constantinople; but its fall was a second time retarded by the necessity in which the Turks were unexpectedly placed, of defending their own dominions against a powerful invader.

5. Scanderbeg (John Castriot) prince of Albania, whose territories had been seized by Amurat II., was educated by the sultan as his own child, and, when of age, intrusted with the command of an army, which he employed in wresting from Amurat his paternal kingdom (1443). By great talents and military skill, he maintained his independent sovereignty against the whole force of the Turkish empire, for a period of twenty-three years.

6. Mahomet II., son of the philosophic Amurat, a youth of twenty-one years of age, resumed the plan of extinguishing the empire of the Greeks, and making Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman power. Its indolent inhabitants made but a feeble preparation for defence, and the powers of Europe looked on with the most supine indifference. The Turks assailed the city both on the land side and that of the sea; and battering down its walls with their cannon, entered sword in hand, and massacred all who opposed them. The emperor Constantine was slain; the city surrendered; and thus was finally extinguished the eastern empire of the Romans (A.D. 1453), which, from the building of its capital by Constantine the Great, had subsisted 1123 years. The imperial edifices were preserved from

destruction, the churches converted into mosques; but the exercise of their religion was allowed to all the Christians. From that time the Greek Christians have regularly chosen their own patriarch, whom the sultan instals; although his authority continues to be disputed by the Latin patriarch, who is chosen by the pope. Mahomet the Great liberally patronized the arts and sciences; and to compensate for the migration of those learned Greeks, who, on the fall of the empire, spread themselves over the countries of Europe, invited both artists and men of letters to his capital from other kingdoms.

7. The taking of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of Greece and Epirus; and Italy might probably have met with a similar fate, but for the fleet of the Venetians who opposed the arms of Mahomet with considerable success, and even attacked him in Greece; but the contending powers soon after put an end to hostilities by a treaty. Mahomet the Great died at the age of fifty-one (1481).

XXVII.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

1. The government of Turkey is an absolute monarchy, the whole legislative and executive authority of the state centering in the sultan, whose power is subject to no constitutional control. It is, however, limited in some degree by religious opinion; the precepts of the Koran inculcating certain duties on the sovereign which it would be held an impiety to transgress. It is yet more strongly limited by the fear of dethronement and assassination. Under these restraints, the prince can never venture on an extreme abuse of power.

2. The spirit of the people is fitted for a subjection bordering on slavery. Concubinage being agreeable to the law of Mahomet, the grand seignior, the

viziers, are born of female slaves; and there is scarce a subject of the empire of ingenuous blood by both parents. It is a fundamental maxim of the Turkish policy, that all the officers of state should be such as the sultan can entirely command, and at any time destroy, without danger to himself.

3. The grand vizier is usually intrusted with the whole functions of government, and of course subjected to the sole responsibility for all public measures. Subordinate to him are six viziers of the bench, who are his council and assessors in cases of law, of which he is supreme judge. The power of the grand vizier is absolute over all the subjects of the empire; but he cannot put to death a beglerbeg or a bashaw without the imperial signature; nor punish a janizary, unless through the medium of his military commander. The beglerbegs are the governors of several provinces, the bashaws of a single province. All dignities in the Turkish empire are personal, and dependent on the sovereign's pleasure.

4. The revenues of the grand seignior arise from taxes and customs laid on the subject, annual tributes paid by the Tartars, stated gifts from the governors of the provinces, and, above all, the confiscations of estates, from the viziers and bashaws downwards to the lowest subjects of the empire. The certain and fixed revenues of the sovereign are small in comparison to those which are arbitrary; and his absolute power enables him to execute great projects at a small expense.

XXVIII.

FRANCE AND ITALY IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. There was scarcely any vestige now remaining in France of the ancient feudal government. The only subsisting fiefs were Burgundy and Brittany

Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who sought to increase his territories by the conquest of Switzerland and Lorraine, was defeated by the Swiss, and killed in battle; and as he left no son, Lewis XI. of France took possession of Burgundy as a male fief (1447). The duke's daughter married Maximilian, son of the emperor Frederick III., who, by this marriage, acquired the sovereignty of the Netherlands.

2. The acquisition of Burgundy and of Provence, which was bequeathed to France by the count de la Marche, increased very greatly the power of the crown. Lewis XI., an odious compound of vice, cruelty, and superstition, and a tyrant to his people, was yet the author of many wise and excellent regulations of public policy. The barbarity of the public executions in his reign is beyond all belief; yet the wisdom of his laws, the encouragement he gave to commerce, the restraints he imposed on the oppressions of the nobility, and the attention he bestowed in regulating the courts of justice, must ever be mentioned to his honour.

3. The count de la Marche, besides the bequest of Provence to Lewis XI., left him his empty title of sovereign of the Two Sicilies. Lewis was satisfied with the substantial gift; but his son Charles VIII. was dazzled with the shadow. In the beginning of his reign he projected the conquest of Naples, and embarked in the enterprise with the most improvident precipitancy.

4. The dismembered state of Italy was favourable to his views. The popedom, during the transference of its seat to Avignon, had lost many of its territories. Mantua, Modena, and Ferrara, had their independent sovereigns. Piedmont belonged to the duke of Savoy; Genoa and Milan to the family of Sforza. Florence, under the Medici, had attained to a very high pitch of splendour. Cosmo, the founder of that family, employed a vast fortune acquired by commerce, in the improvement of his country, in acts of public munificence, and in the

cultivation of the sciences and elegant arts. His high reputation obtained for himself and his posterity the chief authority in his native state. Peter de Medici, his great grandson, ruled in Florence at the period of the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy.

5. The papacy was enjoyed at this time by Alexander VI., a monster of wickedness. The pope and the duke of Milan, who had invited Charles to this enterprise, immediately betrayed him, and joined the interest of the king of Naples. Charles, after besieging the pope in Rome, and forcing him to submission, devoutly kissed his feet. He now marched against Naples, while its timid prince Alphonso fled to Sicily, and his son to the Isle of Ischia, after absolving his subjects from their allegiance. Charles entered Naples in triumph, and was hailed emperor and Augustus; but he lost his new kingdom in almost as short a time as he had gained it. A league was formed against France between the pope, the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Arragon, Isabella of Castile, and the Venetians; and on the return of Charles to France, the troops he had left to guard his conquest were entirely driven out of Italy.

6. It has been remarked, that from the decisive effect of this confederacy against Charles VIII. the sovereigns of Europe derived an useful lesson of policy, and first adopted the idea of preserving a balance of power, by that tacit league, which is understood to be always subsisting, for the prevention of the inordinate aggrandizement of any particular state.

7. Charles VIII. died at the age of twenty-eight (1498); and, leaving no children, the duke of Orleans succeeded to the throne of France, by the title of Lewis XII.

XXIX.

HISTORY OF SPAIN IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. We go back a little to the middle of the fourteenth century, to trace the history of Spain. Peter of Castile, surnamed the Cruel (for no other reason than that he employed severe means to support his just rights), had to contend against a bastard brother, Henry of Transtamarre, who, with the aid of a French banditti, called Malandrins, led by Bertrand du Guesclin, strove to dispossess him of his kingdom. Peter was aided by Edward the Black Prince, then sovereign of Guienne, who defeated Transtamarre, and took Bertrand prisoner; but on the return of the prince to England, Peter was attacked by his former enemies, and entirely defeated. Unable to restrain his rage in the first interview with Transtamarre, the latter put him to death with his own hand (1368); and thus this usurper secured for himself and his posterity the throne of Castile.

2. The weakness and debauchery of one of his descendants, Henry IV. of Castile, occasioned a revolution in the kingdom. The majority of the nation rose in rebellion; the assembly of the nobles solemnly deposed their king, and, on the alleged ground of his daughter Johanna being a bastard, compelled him to settle the crown on his sister Isabella. They next brought about a marriage between Isabella and Ferdinand of Arragon, which united the monarchies of Arragon and Castile. After a ruinous civil war, the revolution was at length completed by the death of the deposed sovereign (1474), and the retirement of his daughter Johanna to a monastery (1479).

3. At the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella to the thrones of Arragon and Castile, Spain was in a

state of great disorder, from the lawless depredations of the nobles and their vassals. It was the first object of the new sovereigns to repress these enormities, by subjecting the offenders to the utmost rigour of law, enforced by the sword. *The Holy Brotherhood* was instituted for the discovery and punishment of crimes; and the inquisition (see *supra*, Sect. XIX. § 3), under the pretext of extirpating heresy and impiety, afforded the most detestable examples of sanguinary persecution.

4. The Moorish kingdom of Granada, a most splendid monarchy, but at that time weakened by faction, and a prey to civil war, offered a tempting object to the ambition of Ferdinand and Isabella. Alboacen was at war with his nephew Aboabdeli, who wanted to dethrone him; and Ferdinand aided Aboabdeli, in the view of ruining both; for no sooner was the latter in possession of the crown by the death of Alboacen, than Ferdinand invaded his ally with the whole force of Arragon and Castile. Granada was besieged in 1491; and after a blockade of eight months, surrendered to the victor. Aboabdeli, by a mean capitulation, saved his life, and purchased a retreat for his countrymen to a mountainous part of the kingdom, where they were suffered to enjoy unmolested their laws and their religion. Thus ended the dominion of the Moors in Spain, which had subsisted for 800 years.

5. Ferdinand, from that period, took the title of king of Spain. In 1492, he expelled all the Jews from his dominions, on the absurd ground that they kept in their hands the commerce of the kingdom; and Spain thus lost above 150,000 of the most industrious of her inhabitants. The exiles spread themselves over the other kingdoms of Europe, and were often the victims of a persecution equally inhuman. It would appear that Spain has felt, even to the present times, the effects of this folly, in the slow progress of the arts, and that deplorable inactivity which is the characteristic of her people. Even

the discovery of the new world, which happened at this very period, and which stimulated the spirit of enterprise and industry in all the neighbouring kingdoms, produced but a feeble impression on that nation, which might in a great degree have monopolized its benefits. Of that great discovery we shall afterwards treat in a separate section.

XXX.

FRANCE, SPAIN, AND ITALY, IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH AND BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Lewis XII., eagerly bent on vindicating his right to Naples, courted the interest of pope Alexander VI., who promised his aid, on the condition that his natural son, Cæsar Borgia, should receive from Lewis the dutchy of Valentinois, with the king of Navarre's sister in marriage. Lewis crossed the Alps; and in the space of a few days was master of Milan and Genoa. Sforza duke of Milan became his prisoner for life. Afraid of the power of Ferdinand of Spain, Lewis joined with him in the conquest of Naples, and agreed to divide with him the conquered dominions, the pope making no scruple to sanction the partition. But the compromise was of no duration; for Alexander VI. and Ferdinand judging it a better policy to share Italy between themselves, united their interest to strip Lewis of his new territories. The Spaniards, under the celebrated Gonsalvo de Cordova, defeated the French under the duke de Nemours and the chevalier Bayard; and Lewis irrecoverably lost his share of the kingdom of Naples.

2. History relates with horror the crimes of pope Alexander VI. and his son Cæsar Borgia; their murders, robberies, profanations, incests. They compassed their ends in attaining every object of

their ambition, but with the universal abhorrence of mankind, and finally met with an ample retribution for their crimes. The pope died by poison, prepared, as was alleged, by himself for an enemy; and Borgia, stripped of all his possessions by pope Julius II. and sent prisoner to Spain by Gonsalvo de Cordova, perished in miserable obscurity.

3. Julius II., the successor of Alexander, projected the formidable league of Cambray (1508), with the emperor, the kings of France and Spain, the duke of Savoy, and king of Hungary, for the destruction of Venice, and dividing her territories among the confederates. They accomplished in part their design; and Venice was on the verge of annihilation, when the pope changed his politics; and having made the French subservient to his views of plundering the Venetians, now formed a new league with them, and the Germans and Spaniards, to expel the French from Italy, and appropriate all their conquests. The Swiss and the English co-operated in this design. The French made a brave resistance under their generals Bayard and Gaston de Foix, but were finally overpowered. Lewis was compelled to evacuate Italy: Ferdinand, with the aid of Henry VIII. of England, stripped him of Navarre, and forced him to purchase a peace. He died in 1515; and, though unfortunate in his military enterprises, from the superior abilities of his rivals pope Julius and Ferdinand, was justly esteemed by his subjects for the wisdom and equity of his government.

XXXI.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.——CIVIL WARS OF YORK AND LANCASTER.

1. We have seen France recovered from the English in the early part of the reign of Henry VI. by the talents and prowess of Charles VII. During the minority of Henry, who was a prince of no capacity, England was embroiled by the factious contention for power between his uncles, the duke of Gloucester and the cardinal of Winchester. The latter, to promote his own views of ambition, married Henry to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier the titular king of Naples, a woman of great mental endowments and singular heroism of character, but whose severity in the persecution of her enemies alienated a great part of the nobles from their allegiance, and increased the partisans of a rival claimant of the crown.

2. This was Richard duke of York, descended by his mother from Lionel second son of Edward III., and elder brother to John of Gaunt, the progenitor of Henry VI. The White Rose distinguished the faction of York, as the Red that of Lancaster. The party of York gained much strength from the incapacity of Henry, who was subject to fits of lunacy; and Richard was appointed lieutenant and protector of the kingdom. The authority of Henry was now annihilated; but Margaret roused her husband, in an interval of sanity, to assert his right; and the nation was divided in arms between the rival parties. In the battle of St. Alban's, 5000 of the Lancastrians were slain, and the king was taken prisoner by the duke of York (22d May, 1454). Yet the Parlia-

ment, while it confirmed the authority of the protector, maintained its allegiance to the king.

3. The spirit of the queen re-animated the royal party; and the Lancastrians gained such advantage, that the duke of York fled to Ireland, while his cause was secretly maintained in England by Guy earl of Warwick. In the battle of Northampton the party of York again prevailed, and Henry once more was brought prisoner to London, while his dauntless queen still nobly exerted herself to retrieve his fortunes. York now claimed the crown in open parliament, but prevailed only to have his right of succession ascertained on Henry's death, to the exclusion of the royal issue.

4. In the next battle the duke of York was slain, and his party defeated; but his successor Edward, supported by Warwick, avenged this disaster by a signal victory near Touton, in Yorkshire, in which 40,000 of the Lancastrians were slain. York was proclaimed king by the title of Edward IV., while Margaret with her dethroned husband and infant son, fled to Flanders.

5. Edward, who owed his crown to Warwick, was ungrateful to his benefactor; and the imprudence and injustice of his conduct forced that nobleman at length to take part with the faction of Lancaster. The consequence was, that, after some struggles, Edward was deposed, and Henry VI. once more restored to the throne by the hands of Warwick, now known by the epithet of *The king-maker*. But this change was of no duration: the party of York ultimately prevailed; the Lancastrians were defeated in the battle of Barnet, and the brave Warwick slain in the engagement (1472).

6. The intrepid Margaret, whose spirit was superior to every change of fortune, prepared to strike a last blow for the crown of England in the battle of Tewksbury. The event was fatal to her hopes: victory declared for Edward. Margaret was sent prisoner to the Tower of London; and the prince

her son, a youth of high spirit, when brought into the presence of his conqueror, having nobly dared to justify his enterprise to the face of his rival, was barbarously murdered by the dukes of Gloucester and Clarence. Henry VI. was soon after privately put to death in the Tower. The heroic Margaret, ransomed by Lewis XI. died in France, 1482.

7. Edward IV., thus secured on the throne by the death of all his competitors, abandoned himself without reserve to the indulgence of a vicious and tyrannical nature. He put to death, on the most frivolous pretence, his brother Clarence; and, preparing to gratify his subjects by a war with France, he died suddenly in the forty-second year of his age, poisoned, as was suspected, by his brother, Richard duke of Gloucester (1483).

8. Edward left two sons, the elder, Edward V., a boy of thirteen years of age. Richard duke of Gloucester, named Protector in the minority of his nephew, hired, by means of Buckingham, a mob of the dregs of the populace to declare their wish for his assumption of the crown. He yielded, with affected reluctance, to this voice of the nation, and was proclaimed king by the title of Richard III., 1483. Edward V. (after a reign of two months), together with his brother the duke of York, were, by command of the usurper, smothered while asleep, and privately buried in the Tower.

9. These atrocious crimes found an avenger in Henry earl of Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, who, aided by Charles VIII. of France, landed in England, and revived the spirits of a party almost extinguished in the kingdom. He gave battle to Richard in the field of Bosworth, and entirely defeated the army of the usurper, who was slain while fighting with the most desperate courage, August 22, 1485. The crown he wore in the engagement was immediately placed on the head of the conqueror. This auspicious day put an end to the civil wars of York and Lancaster. Henry VII.

united the rights of both families by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

10. The reign of Henry VII. was of twenty-four years' duration; and under his wise and politic government the kingdom recovered all the wounds it had sustained in those unhappy contests. Industry, good order, and perfect subordination, were the fruit of the excellent laws passed in this reign; though the temper of the sovereign was despotic, and his avarice, in the latter part of his reign, prompted to the most oppressive exactions.

11. The government of Henry was disturbed by two very singular enterprises; the attempt of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence; and the similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck, son of a Flemish Jew, to counterfeit the duke of York, who had been smothered in the Tower by Richard III. Both impostors found considerable support, but were finally defeated. Simnel, after being crowned at Dublin king of England and Ireland, ended his days in a menial office of Henry's household. Perkin, for five years, supported his cause by force of arms, and was aided by a great proportion of the English nobility. Overpowered at length, he surrendered to Henry, who condemned him to perpetual imprisonment; but his ambitious spirit meditating a new insurrection, he was put to death as a traitor. Henry VII. died 1509, in the fifty-third year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign.

XXXII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF JAMES V.

1. In no country of Europe had the feudal aristocracy attained to a greater height than in Scotland. The power of the greater barons, while it rendered them independent, and often the rivals of their sovereign, was a perpetual source of turbulence and disorder in the kingdom. It was therefore a constant policy of the Scottish kings to humble the nobles, and break their factious combinations. Robert I. attempted to retrench the vast territorial possessions of his barons, by requiring every landholder to produce the titles of his estate; but was resolutely answered that the sword was their charter of possession.

2. On the death of Robert, in 1329, and during the minority of his son David, Edward Baliol, the son of John formerly king of Scotland, with the aid of Edward III. of England, and supported by many of the factious barons, invaded the kingdom, and was crowned at Scone, while the young David was conveyed for security to France. The mean dependence of Baliol on the English monarch deprived him of the affections of the people. Robert the steward of Scotland, Randolph, and Douglas, supported the Brucian interest, and, assisted by the French, restored David to his throne; a prince destined to sustain many reverses of fortune; for, in a subsequent invasion of the English territory by the Scots, David was taken prisoner in the battle of Durham, and conveyed to London. He remained for eleven years in captivity, and witnessed the similar fate of a brother monarch, John king of France, taken pri-

soner by the Black Prince in the battle of Poictiers. David was ransomed by his subjects, and restored to his kingdom in 1357; and he ended a turbulent reign in 1370–1. The crown passed at his demise to his nephew Robert, the high steward of Scotland, in virtue of a destination made by Robert I. with consent of the States.

3. The reign of Robert II., which was of twenty years' duration, was spent in a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, productive of no material consequence to either kingdom; and the weak and indolent disposition of his successor Robert III., who found himself unequal to the contest with his factious nobles, prompted him to resign the government to his brother the duke of Albany. This ambitious man formed the design of usurping the throne by the murder of his nephews the sons of Robert. The elder Rothsay, a prince of high spirit, was imprisoned, on pretence of treasonable designs, and starved to death. The younger, James, escaped a similar fate which was intended for him; but, on his passage to France, whither he was sent for safety by his father, he was taken by an English ship of war and brought prisoner to London. The weak Robert sunk under these misfortunes, and died 1405, after a reign of fifteen years.

4. James I., a prince of great natural endowments, profited by a captivity of eighteen years at the court of England, in adorning his mind with every valuable accomplishment. At his return to his kingdom, which in his absence had been weakly governed by the regent Albany, and suffered under all the disorders of anarchy, he bent his whole attention to the improvement and civilization of his people, by the enactment of many excellent laws, enforced with a resolute authority. The factions of the nobles, their dangerous combinations, and their domineering tyranny over their dependants, the great sources of the people's miseries, were firmly restrained and most severely punished. But these wholesome in-

novations, while they procured to James the affections of the nation at large, excited the odium of the nobility, and gave birth to a conspiracy, headed by the earl of Athole, the king's uncle, which terminated in the murder of this excellent prince, in the forty-fourth year of his age (1437).

5. His son James II. inherited a considerable portion of the talents of his father; and, in the like purpose of restraining the inordinate power of his nobles, pursued the same maxims of government, which an impetuous temper prompted him, in some instances, to carry to the most blameable excess. The earl of Douglas, trusting to a powerful vassalage, had assumed an authority above the laws, and a state and splendour rival to those of his sovereign. He was seized, and, without accusation or trial, beheaded. His successor imprudently running the same career, and boldly justifying, in a conference, his rebellious practices, was put to death by the king's own hand. Thus were the factions of the nobles quelled by a barbarous rigour of authority. To his people James was beneficent and humane, and his laws contributed materially to their civilization and prosperity. He was killed in the thirtieth year of his age by the bursting of a cannon, in besieging the castle of Roxburgh (1460).

6. His son, James III., without the talents of his predecessors, affected to tread in the same steps. To humble his nobles, he bestowed his confidence on mean favourites; an insult which the former avenged by rebellion. His brothers Albany and Mar, aided by Edward IV. of England, attempted a revolution in the kingdom, which was frustrated only by the death of Edward. In a second rebellion, the confederate nobles forced the prince of Rothsay, eldest son of James to appear in arms against his father. In an engagement near Bannockburn the rebels were successful, and the king was slain in the thirty-fifth year of his age (1488).

7. James IV., a great and most accomplished

prince, whose talents were equalled by his virtues, while his measures of government were dictated by a true spirit of patriotism, won by a well-placed confidence the affections of his nobility. In his marriage with Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII. of England, both sovereigns wisely sought a bond of amity between the kingdoms; but this purpose was frustrated in the succeeding reign of Henry VIII. The high spirit of the rival monarchs was easily inflamed by trifling causes of offence; and France, then at war with England, courted the aid of her ancient ally. James invaded England with a powerful army, which he wished to lead to immediate action; but the prudent delays of Surrey, the English general, wasted and weakened his force; and in the fatal battle of Flodden the Scots were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The gallant James perished in the fight, and with him almost the whole of the Scottish nobles (1513).

8. Under the long minority of his son James V., an infant at the time of his father's death, the kingdom was feebly ruled by his uncle Albany. The aristocracy began to resume its ancient spirit of independence, which was ill brooked by a prince of a proud and uncontrollable mind, who felt the keenest jealousy of a high prerogative. With a systematic policy, he employed the church to abase the nobility, conferring all the offices of state on able ecclesiastics. The cardinal Beaton co-operated with great zeal in the designs of his master, and under him ruled the kingdom.

9. Henry VIII., embroiled with the papacy, sought an alliance with the king of Scots, but the ecclesiastical counsellors of the latter defeated this beneficial purpose. A war was thus provoked, and James was reluctantly compelled to court those nobles whom it had been hitherto his darling object to humiliate. They now determined on a disgraceful revenge. In an attack on the Scottish border the English were repelled, and an opportunity offered

to the Scots of cutting off their retreat. The king gave his orders to that end, but his barons obstinately refused to advance beyond the frontier. One measure more was wanting to drive their sovereign to despair. In a subsequent engagement with the English, 10,000 of the Scots deliberately surrendered themselves prisoners to 500 of the enemy. The high spirit of James sunk under his contending passions; and he died of a broken heart in the thirty-third year of his age, a few days after the birth of a daughter, yet more unfortunate than her father, Mary queen of Scots (1542).

XXXIII.

ON THE ANCIENT CONSTITUTION OF THE SCOTTISH GOVERNMENT.

1. We have seen it a constant policy with the Scottish kings to abase the power of their nobles, and this struggle we have observed to have been the source of much misery and bloodshed; but the policy was necessary, from the dangerous ambition and lawless tyranny of those nobles, who frequently aimed at overturning the throne, and exercised the severest oppression on all their dependants. The interests, therefore, of the people, no less than the security of the prince, demanded the repression of this overbearing and destructive power. The aristocracy was, however, preserved, no less by its own strength than by the concurrence of circumstances, and chiefly by the violent and unhappy fate of the sovereigns. Meantime, although the measures they pursued were not successful, their consequences were beneficial. They restrained, if they did not destroy, the spirit of feudal oppression, and gave birth to order, wise laws, and a more tranquil administration of government.

2. The legislative power, though nominally resi

dent in the parliament, was virtually in the king, who, by his influence, entirely controlled its proceedings. The parliament consisted of three estates, the nobles, the dignified clergy, and the lesser barons, the representatives of the towns and shires. The disposal of benefices gave the crown the entire command of the churchmen, who equalled the nobles in number; and at least a majority of the commons were the dependants of the sovereign. A committee, termed the lords of the articles, prepared every measure that was to come before the parliament, and these, by the mode of their election, were in effect nominated by the king. It is to the credit of the Scottish princes, that there are few instances of their abusing an authority so extensive as that which they constitutionally enjoyed.

3. The king had anciently the supreme jurisdiction in all causes, civil and criminal, which he generally exercised through the medium of his privy council; but in 1425, James I. instituted the court of session, consisting of the chancellor and certain judges chosen from the three estates. This court was new modelled by James V. and its jurisdiction limited to civil causes, the cognizance of crimes being committed to the justiciary. The chancellor was the highest officer of the crown, and president of the parliament. To the chamberlain belonged the care of the finances and the public police; to the high steward the charge of the king's household: the constable regulated all matters of military arrangement; and the marshall was the king's lieutenant and master of the horse.

4. The revenue of the sovereign consisted of his domain, which was extensive, of the feudal casualties and forfeitures, the profits of the wardships of his vassals, the rents of vacant benefices, the pecuniary fines for offences, and the aids or presents occasionally given by the subject; a revenue at all times sufficient for the purposes of government, and the support of the dignity of the crown.

5. The political principles which regulated the conduct of the Scots towards other nations were obvious and simple. It had ever been an object of ambition to England to acquire the sovereignty of her sister kingdom, who was constantly on her guard against this design of her more potent neighbour. It was the wisest policy for Scotland to attach herself to France, the natural enemy of England; an alliance reciprocally courted from similar motives. In those days this attachment was justly esteemed patriotic; while the Scots, who were the partisans of England, were with equal justice regarded as traitors to their country. In the period of which we now treat, it was a settled policy of the English sovereigns to have a secret faction in their pay in Scotland, for the purpose of dividing and thus enslaving the nation; and to this source all the subsequent disorders of the latter kingdom are to be attributed.

XXXIV.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AND SCIENCE IN EUROPE.

FROM THE REVIVAL OF LETTERS DOWN TO THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. The first restorers of learning in Europe were the Arabians, who, in the course of their Asiatic conquests, becoming acquainted with some of the ancient Greek authors, discovered and justly appreciated the knowledge and improvement to be derived from them. The caliphs procured from the eastern emperors copies of the ancient manuscripts, and had them carefully translated into Arabic; esteeming principally those which treated of mathematics, physics, and metaphysics. They disseminated their knowledge in the course of their conquests,

and founded schools and colleges in all the countries they subdued.

2. The western kingdoms of Europe became first acquainted with the learning of the ancients, through the medium of those Arabian translations. Charlemagne caused Latin translations to be made from the Arabian, and founded, after the example of the caliphs, the universities of Bononia, Pavia, Osnaburg, and Paris. Alfred, with a similar spirit, and by similar means, introduced a taste for literature in England; but the subsequent disorders of the kingdom replunged it into barbarism. The Normans, however, brought from the continent some tincture of ancient learning, which was kept alive in the monasteries, where the monks were meritoriously employed in transcribing a few of the ancient authors, along with the legendary lives of the saints.

3. In this dawn of literature in England appeared Henry of Huntingdon and Geoffrey of Monmouth, names distinguished in the earliest annals of poetry and romance; John of Salisbury, a moralist; William of Malmesbury, annalist of the history of England before the reign of Stephen; Giraldus Cambrensis, known in the fields of history, theology, and poetry; Joseph of Exeter, author of two Latin epic poems on the Trojan war, and the war of Antioch, or the crusade, which are read with pleasure even in the present day.

4. But this era of a good taste in letters was of short duration. The taste for classical composition and historic information yielded to the barbarous subtilties of scholastic divinity taught by Lombard and Abelard; and the abstruse doctrines of the Roman law, which began to engage the general attention from the recent discovery of the Pandects at Amalphi, 1137. The amusements of the vulgar in those periods were metrical and prose romances, unintelligible prophecies, and fables of giants and enchanters.

5. In the middle of the thirteenth century appeaerd

a distinguished genius, Roger Bacon, an English friar, whose comprehensive mind was filled with all the stores of ancient learning; who possessed a discriminating judgment to separate the precious ore from the dross, and a power of invention fitted to advance in every science which was the object of his study. He saw the insufficiency of the school of philosophy, and first recommended the prosecution of knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature. He made discoveries of importance in astronomy, in optics, in chemistry and medicine, and mechanics. He reformed the calendar, discovered the construction of telescopic glasses, forgotten after his time, and revived by Galileo, and has left a plain intimation of his knowledge of the composition of gunpowder. Yet this most superior genius believed in the possibility of discovering an elixir for the prolongation of life, in the transmutation of metals into gold, and in judicial astrology.

6. A general taste prevailed for poetical composition in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The troubadours of Provence wrote sonnets, madrigals, and satirical ballads, and excelled in extempore dialogues on the subject of love, which they treated in a metaphysical and Platonic strain. They contended for the prize of poetry at solemn meetings, where princes, nobles, and the most illustrious ladies, attended to decide between the rival bards; and some of those princes, as Richard I. of England, Frederick I. emperor of Germany, are celebrated themselves as troubadours of eminence. Many fragments yet remain of their compositions.

7. The transference of the papal seat to Avignon in the fourteenth century familiarized the Italian poets with the songs of the troubadours, and gave a tincture of the Provençal style to their compositions, which is very observable in the poetry of Petrarch and of Dante. The *Divina Commedia* of Dante first introduced the machinery of angels and devils in the room of the Pagan mythology, and is a work con-

taining many examples of the terrible sublime. The *Sonnets* and *Canzoni* of Petrarch are highly tender and pathetic, though vitiated with a quaintness and conceit, which is a prevailing feature of the Italian poetry. The *Decamerone* of Boccaccio, a work of the same age, is a masterpiece for invention, ingenious narrative, and acquaintance with human nature. These authors have fixed the standard of the Italian language.

8. Contemporary with them, and of rival merit, was the English Chaucer, who displays all the talents of Boccaccio through the medium of excellent poetry. The works of Chaucer discover an extensive knowledge of the sciences, an acquaintance both with ancient and modern learning, particularly the literature of France and Italy, and, above all, a most acute discernment of life and manners.

9. Of similar character are the poems of Gower, but of a graver cast, and a more chastened morality. Equal to these eminent men, in every species of literary merit, was the accomplished James I. of Scotland, of which his remaining writings bear convincing testimony. The doubtful Rowley of Bristol is said to have adorned the fifteenth century.

10. Spain at this period began to emerge from ignorance and barbarism, and to produce a few of those works which are enumerated with approbation in the whimsical but judicious criticism of Cervantes (Don Quixote, b. i. c. 6).

11. But although poetry attained in those ages a considerable degree of splendour, there was but little advancement in general literature and science. History was disgraced by the intermixture of miracle and fable; though we find much curious information in the writings of Matthew of Westminster, of Walsingham, Everard, Duysburg, and the Chronicles of Froissart and Monstrelet. Philip de Comines happily describes the reigns of Lewis XI. and Charles VIII. of France. Villani and Platina are valuable recorders of the affairs of Italy.

12. A taste for classical learning in the fifteenth century led to the discovery of many of the ancient authors. Poggio discovered the writings of Quintilian, and several of the compositions of Cicero, which stimulated to farther research, and the recovery of many valuable remains of Greek and Roman literature. But this taste was not generally diffused. France and England were extremely barbarous. The library at Oxford contained only 600 volumes, and there were but four classics in the royal library at Paris. But a brighter period was approaching. The dispersion of the Greeks, on the fall of the eastern empire, in the end of the fifteenth century, diffused a taste for polite literature over all the west of Europe. A succcession of popes, endowed with a liberal and enlightened spirit, gave every encouragement to learning and the sciences; and, above all, the noble discovery of the *Art of Printing* contributed to their rapid advancement and dissemination, and gave a certain assurance of the perpetuation of every valuable art, and the progressive improvement of human knowledge.

13. The rise of dramatic composition among the moderns is to be traced to the absurd and ludicrous representation in the churches of the Scripture histories, called in England Mysteries, Miracles, and Moralities. These were first exhibited in the twelfth century, and continued to the sixteenth, when in England they were prohibited by law. Of these we have amusing specimens in Warton's History of English Poetry. Profane dramas were substituted in their place; and a mixture of the sacred and profane appears to have been known in France as early as 1300. In Spain the farcical mysteries keep their ground to the present day; nor was it till the end of the sixteenth century that any regular composition for the stage was known in that country. The Italians are allowed by their own writers to have borrowed their theatre from the French and English.

XXXV.

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF COMMERCE IN EUROPE BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES.

1. Before giving an account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, in exploring a new route to India, we shall present a short view of the progress of commerce in Europe down to that period.

The boldest naval enterprise of the ancients was the Periplus of Hanno, who sailed (570, B.C.) from Carthage to the coast of Guinea, within four or five degrees of the line. Africa was not known by the ancients to be almost circumnavigable. They had a very limited knowledge of the habitable earth. They believed that both the torrid and frigid zones were uninhabitable; and they were but very imperfectly acquainted with a great part of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Poland, the greatest part of Russia, were unknown to them. In Ptolemy's description of the globe, the 63d degree of latitude is the limit of the earth to the north, the equinoctial to the south.

2. Britain was circumnavigated in the time of Domitian. The Romans frequented it for the purposes of commerce; and Tacitus mentions London as a celebrated resort of merchants. The commerce of the ancients was, however, chiefly confined to the Mediterranean. In the flourishing periods of the Constantinopolitan empire, the merchandise of India was imported from Alexandria; but, after the conquest of Egypt by the Arabians, it was carried up the Indus, and thence by land to the Oxus, which then ran into the Caspian sea; thence it was brought up the Wolga, and again carried over land to the Don, whence it descended into the Euxine.

3. After the fall of the Western empire, commerce

was long at a stand in Europe.—When Attila was ravaging Italy the Veneti took refuge in the small islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and there founded Venice (A.D. 452), which began very early to equip small fleets, and trade to the coasts of Egypt and the Levant, for spices and other merchandise of Arabia and India. Genoa, Florence, and Pisa, imitated this example, and began to acquire considerable wealth; but Venice retained her superiority over these rival states, and gained considerable territories on the opposite coast of Illyricum and Dalmatia.

4. The maritime cities of Italy profited by the crusades, in furnishing the armies with supplies, and bringing home the produce of the east. The Italian merchants established manufactures similar to those of Constantinople. Rogero king of Sicily brought artisans from Athens, and established a silk manufacture at Palermo in 1130. The sugar cane was planted in Sicily in the twelfth century, and thence carried to Madeira, and finally made its way to the West Indies.

5. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the Italians were the only commercial people of Europe. Venice set the first example of a national bank in 1157, which has maintained its credit to the present times. The only trade of France, Spain, and Germany, at this time, was carried on at stated fairs and markets, to which traders resorted from all quarters, paying a tax to the sovereigns or the lords of the territory. The more enterprising bought a privilege of exemption, by paying at once a large sum, and were thence called *free traders*.

6. In the middle ages the Italian merchants, usually called Lombards, were the factors of all the European nations, and were enticed by privileges granted by the sovereigns, to settle in France, Spain, Germany, and England. They were not only traders in commodities, but bankers, or money-dealers; but they found in this last business a severe restraint

from the canon law prohibiting the taking of interest; and hence, from the necessary privacy of their bargains, there were no bounds to exorbitant usury. The Jews, too, who were the chief dealers in money, brought disrepute on the trade of banking, and frequently suffered, on that account, the most intolerable persecution and confiscation of their fortunes. To guard against these injuries, they invented *Bills of Exchange*.

7. The Lombard merchants awakened a spirit of commerce, and gave birth to manufactures, which were generally encouraged by the sovereigns in the different kingdoms of Europe. Among the chiet encouragements was the institution of corporations or monopolies, the earliest of which are traced up to the eleventh century; a policy beneficial and perhaps necessary where the spirit of industry is low, and manufactures are in their infancy, but of hurtful consequence where trade and manufactures are flourishing.

8. Commerce began to spread towards the north of Europe about the end of the twelfth century. The sea-ports on the Baltic traded with France and Britain, and with the Mediterranean by the staple of the isle of Oleron, near the mouth of the Garonne, then possessed by the English. The commercial laws of Oleron and Wisbuy (on the Baltic) regulated for many ages the trade of Europe. To protect their trade from piracy, Lubec, Hamburgh, and most of the northern sea-ports, joined in a confederacy, under certain general regulations, termed the *League of the Hanse Towns*; an union so beneficial in its nature, and so formidable in point of strength, as to have its alliance courted by the predominant powers of Europe.

9. For the trade of the Hanse Towns with the southern kingdoms, Bruges, on the coast of Flanders, was found a convenient entrepôt, and thither the Mediterranean merchants brought the commodities of India and the Levant to exchange with the pro-

duce and manufactures of the North. The Flemings now began to encourage trade and manufactures, which thence spread to the Brabanters; but their growth being checked by the impolitic sovereigns of those provinces, they found a more favourable field in England, which was destined thence to derive the great source of its national opulence.

10. The Britons had very early seen the importance of commerce. Bede relates that London, in 614, was frequented by foreigners for the purpose of trade; and William of Malmesbury speaks of it in 1041, as a most populous and wealthy city. The cinque ports, Dover, Hastings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich, obtained in that age their privileges and immunities, on condition of furnishing each five ships of war. These ports are now eight in number, and send their members to parliament.

11. The woollen manufacture of England was considerable in the twelfth century. Henry II. incorporated the weavers of London, and gave them various privileges. By a law passed in his reign, all cloth made of foreign wool was condemned to be burnt. Scotland at this time seems to have possessed a considerable source of wealth, as is evident from the payment of the ransom of William the Lion, which was 10,000 marks, equal to 100,000*l.* sterling of present money. The English found it difficult to raise double that sum for the ransom of Richard I., and the Scots contributed a proportion of it. The English sovereigns at first drew a considerable revenue from the custom on wool exported to be manufactured abroad; but becoming soon sensible of the benefit of encouraging its home manufacture, they invited, for that purpose, the foreign artisans and merchants to reside in England, and gave them valuable immunities. Edward III. was peculiarly attentive to trade and manufactures, as appears by the laws passed in his reign, and he was bountiful in the encouragement of foreign artisans. The succeeding reigns were not so favourable; and during

the civil wars of York and Lancaster, the spirit of trade and manufactures greatly declined; nor was it till the accession of Henry VII. that they began once more to revive and flourish. In that interval, however, of their decay in England, commerce and the arts were encouraged in Scotland by James I. and his successors, as much as the comparatively rude and turbulent state of the kingdom would permit The herring fishery then began to be vigorously promoted; and the duties laid on the exportation of woollen cloth, shew that this manufacture was then considerable among the Scots. Glasgow began, in 1420, to acquire wealth by the fisheries, but had little or no foreign trade till after the discovery of America and the West Indies.

12. Henry VII. gave the most liberal encouragement to trade and manufactures, particularly the woollen, by inviting foreign artisans, and establishing them at Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, &c. The navigation acts were passed in his reign, and commercial treaties formed with the continental kingdoms, for the protection of the merchant-shipping. Such was the state of commerce at the time when the Portuguese made those great discoveries which opened a new route to India, and gave a circulation to its wealth over most of the nations of Europe.

XXXVI.

DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY, AND THEIR EFFECTS ON THE COMMERCE OF EUROPE.

1. The polarity of the magnet had been known in Europe as early as the thirteenth century, but the compass was not used in sailing till the middle of the fourteenth; and another century had elapsed from that period, while yet the European mariners scarcely ventured out of the sight of their coasts.

The eastern ocean was little otherwise known than by name; and the Atlantic was supposed to be a boundless expanse of sea, extending probably to the eastern shores of Asia. In the belief that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, a promontory on the African coast, in the 29th degree of north latitude, was termed Cape Non, as forming an impassable limit.

2. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, John, king of Portugal, sent a few vessels to explore the African coast; and these doubling Cape Non, proceeded to Cape Boyador, within two degrees of the northern tropic. Prince Henry, the son of John, equipped a single ship, which, being driven out to sea, landed on the island of Porto Santo. This involuntary experiment imboldened the mariners to abandon their timid mode of coasting, and launch into the open sea. In 1420, the Portuguese discovered Madeira, where they established a colony, and planted the Cyprus vine and the sugar-cane.

3. The spirit of enterprise thus awakened, prince Henry obtained from Eugene IV. a bull granting to the Portuguese the property of all the countries they might discover between Cape Non and India. Under John I. of Portugal, the Cape Verd Islands were discovered and colonized; and the fleets advanc ng to the coast of Guinea, brought home gold-dust, gums, and ivory. Passing the equator, the Portuguese entered a new hemisphere, and boldly proceeded to the extremity of the continent. In 1479, a fleet under Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and sailing onwards beyond the mouths of the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, after a voyage of 1500 leagues, performed in thirteen months.

4. De Gama entered into an alliance with the Rajah of Calicut, a tributary of the Mogul empire, and returned to Lisbon with specimens of the wealth and produce of the country. A succeeding fleet formed settlements; and vanquishing the opposition of the native princes, soon achieved the conquest of

all the coast of Malabar. The city of Goa, taken by storm, became the residence of a Portuguese viceroy, and the capital of their Indian settlements.

5. The Venetians, who had hitherto engrossed the Indian trade by Alexandria, now lost it for ever. After an ineffectual project of cutting through the isthmus of Suez, they attempted to intercept the Portuguese by their fleets stationed at the mouth of the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, but were every where encountered by a superior force. The Portuguese made settlements in both the gulfs, and vigorously prosecuted their conquests on the Indian coast and sea. The rich island of Ceylon, the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, and Malacca, were speedily subdued, and a settlement established in Bengal. They proceeded onward to China, hitherto scarcely known to the Europeans but by the account of a single Venetian traveller, Marco Paolo, in the thirteenth century; and they obtained the emperor's permission to form a settlement at Macao; thus opening a commerce with that immense empire, and the neighbouring islands of Japan. In the space of fifty years, the Portuguese were masters of the whole trade of the Indian ocean, and sovereigns of a large extent of Asiatic territory.

6. These discoveries produced a wonderful effect on the commerce of Europe. The produce of the spice islands was computed to be worth annually 200,000 ducats to Lisbon. The Venetians, after every effort to destroy the trade of the Portuguese, offered to become sole purchasers of all the spice brought to Europe, but were refused. Commercial industry was roused in every quarter, and manufactures made a rapid progress. Lyons, Tours, Abbeville, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, acquired immense wealth. Antwerp and Amsterdam became the great marts of the north. The former owed its splendour to the decline of Bruges, which was ruined by civil commotions; and the Portuguese made Antwerp their entrepôt for the supply of the northern king-

doms. It continued highly flourishing till the revolt of the Netherlands, in the end of the sixteenth century, when it was taken by the Spaniards, and its port destroyed by blocking up the Scheldt.

7. The trade of Holland rose on the fall of Antwerp. Amsterdam had become considerable after the decline of the Hanseatic confederacy in 1428, but rose into splendour and high commercial opulence from the destruction of Antwerp: and the United Provinces, dependent on industry alone for their support, became a model of commercial activity to all other nations.

8. It is not to be doubted that Britain felt the effect of that general stimulus which the Portuguese discoveries gave to the trade of Europe; but other causes had a more sensible operation to that end in England. The Reformation, by suppressing the convents, and restoring many thousands to society, and the cutting off the papal exactions, which drained the kingdom of its wealth, the politic laws passed in the reign of Henry VIII., and the active patriotism of Elizabeth, were vigorous incentives to national industry.

9. From the time of Henry VIII. to the present, the commerce and manufactures of England have been uniformly progressive. The rental of England in lands and houses did not then exceed five millions *per annum;* it is now above eighteen millions. The unmanufactured wool of one year's growth is supposed to be worth two millions; when manufactured, as it now is, by British hands, instead of being sent abroad as formerly for that purpose, it is worth eight millions. Above a million and a half of hands are employed in that manufacture alone; half a million are employed in the manufactures of iron, steel, copper, brass, lead; the linen manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, occupy near a million; and a number not much inferior is employed in the fisheries. It is presumable, on the whole, that nearly a fourth of the population of the united kingdom

is actually employed in commerce and manufactures.

10. The vast increase of the national wealth of Britain appears chiefly, 1. From the increase of population, which is supposed to be nearly five to one (at least in the large cities) since the reign of Elizabeth; 2. From the great addition made to the cultivated lands of the kingdom, and the high improvement of agriculture since that period, whence more than quadruple the quantity of food is produced; 3. From the increase of the commercial shipping, at least six-fold within the same time; 4. From the comparative low rate of interest, which is demonstrative of the increase of wealth. The consequences of the diffusion of the commercial spirit are most important to the national welfare: From general industry arises influence, joined to a spirit of independence; and on this spirit rests the freedom of the British constitution, and all the blessings we enjoy under its protection.

XXXVII.

GERMANY AND FRANCE IN THE REIGNS OF CHARLES V. AND FRANCIS I.

1. We resume the detail of the history of Europe at the beginning of the sixteenth century; previously remarking that the Germanic empire continued for above fifty years in a state of languid tranquillity, from the time of Albert II. the successor of Sigismund, during the long reign of Frederick III., whose son Maximilian acquired, by his marriage with Mary dutchess of Burgundy, the sovereignty of the Netherlands. Maximilian was elected emperor in 1493; and, by establishing a perpetual peace between the separate Germanic states, laid the foundation of the subsequent grandeur of the empire.

doms. It continued highly flourishing till the revolt of the Netherlands, in the end of the sixteenth century, when it was taken by the Spaniards, and its port destroyed by blocking up the Scheldt.

7. The trade of Holland rose on the fall of Antwerp. Amsterdam had become considerable after the decline of the Hanseatic confederacy in 1428, but rose into splendour and high commercial opulence from the destruction of Antwerp: and the United Provinces, dependent on industry alone for their support, became a model of commercial activity to all other nations.

8. It is not to be doubted that Britain felt the effect of that general stimulus which the Portuguese discoveries gave to the trade of Europe; but other causes had a more sensible operation to that end in England. The Reformation, by suppressing the convents, and restoring many thousands to society, and the cutting off the papal exactions, which drained the kingdom of its wealth, the politic laws passed in the reign of Henry VIII., and the active patriot[illegible] of Elizabeth, were vigorous incentives to [illegible] industry.

9. From the time of Henry VIII. to [illegible] the commerce and manufactures of [illegible] been uniformly progressive. The [illegible] in lands and houses did not then [illegible] *per annum*; it is now above ei[illegible] unmanufactured wool of on[illegible] posed to be worth two mill[illegible]d, as it now is, by British h[illegible]ent abroad as formerly for [illegible]eight millions. Abo[illegible]ds are employed in [illegible]illion are emplo[illegible] per, bra[illegible] Scotl[illegible] num[illegible] er[illegible]

is actually employed in commerce and manufactures.

10. The vast increase of the national wealth of Britain appears chiefly, 1. From the increase of population, which is supposed to be nearly [illegible] (at least in the large cities) since the reign of Elizabeth; 2. From the great addition made to the cultivated lands of the kingdom, and the improvement of agriculture since that period, whereby [illegible] than quadruple the quantity of food is produced [illegible] 3. From the increase of the commerce [illegible] at least six-fold within the same [illegible] comparative low rate of interest [illegible] strative of the increase of wealth. The [illegible] quences of the diffusion of the [illegible] most important to the national [illegible] ral industry arises influence [illegible] dependence; and on the spirit [illegible] the British constitution, and [illegible] enjoy under its protection.

GERMANY AND [illegible]

1. We resume the [illegible] at the beginning of [illegible] viously remarking [illegible] tinued for three [illegible] tranquillity, from [illegible] ror of Syria [illegible]

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2. Philip archduke of Austria, son of Maximilian, married Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella; and of that marriage the eldest son was Charles V., who succeeded to the throne of Spain in 1516, and who, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, preferred his claim to the vacant imperial throne. He had for his competitor Francis I. of France, who had distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese, and the adjustment of the contending interests of the Italian states. The German electors, afraid of the exorbitant power both of Charles and of Francis, would have rejected both, and conferred the imperial crown on Frederick duke of Saxony; but this extraordinary man declined the proferred dignity, and his counsel determined the election in favour of Charles of Austria (1519).

3. Charles V. and Francis I. were now declared enemies, and their mutual claims on each other's dominions were the subject of perpetual hostility. The emperor claimed Artois as part of the Netherlands. Francis prepared to make good his right to the two Sicilies. Charles had to defend Milan, and support his title to Navarre, which had been wrested from France by his grandfather Ferdinand. Henry VIII. of England was courted by the rival monarchs, as the weight of England was sufficient to turn the scale, where the power of each was nearly balanced.

4. The first hostile attack was made by Francis on the kingdom of Navarre, which he won and lost in the course of a few months. The emperor attacked Picardy, and his troops at the same time drove the French out of the Milanese. On the death of Leo X. Charles placed cardinal Adrian on the papal throne (1521); and by the promise of elevating Wolsey, the minister of Henry VIII., to that dignity on the death of Adrian, gained the alliance of the English monarch in his war against France.

5. At this critical time Francis imprudently quarrelled with his best general, the constable Bourbon, who, in revenge, deserted to the emperor, and

was by him invested with the chief command of his armies. The imperial generals were far superior in abilities to their opponents. The French were defeated at Biagrassa, and Charles was carrying every thing before him in Italy, when Francis entered the Milanese and retook the capital; but, in the subsequent battle of Pavia, his troops were entirely defeated, and the French monarch became the constable Bourbon's prisoner (1525).

6. The emperor made no advantage of his good fortune. By the treaty of Madrid Francis regained his liberty, on yielding to Charles the dutchy of Burgundy, and the superiority of Flanders and Artois. He gave his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of these conditions; but the states refused to ratify them, and the failure was compromised for a sum of money.

7. On a renewal of the war, Henry VIII. took part with France, and Charles lost an opportunity of obtaining the sovereignty of Italy. The papal army in the French interest was defeated by the constable Bourbon, and the pope himself made prisoner; but Bourbon was killed in the siege of Rome, and Charles allowed the pope to purchase his release.

8. After the conclusion of the peace of Cambray (1529), Charles visited Italy, and received the imperial diadem from pope Clement VII. The Turks having invaded Hungary, the emperor marched against them in person, and compelled the sultan Solyman, with an army of 300,000 men, to evacuate the country. He soon after embarked for Africa, to replace the dethroned Muley Hassan in the sovereignty of Tunis and Algiers, which had been usurped by Hayradin Barbarossa, and he achieved the enterprise with honour. His reputation exceeded at this period that of all the sovereigns of Europe, both for political ability, for real power, and the extent and opulence of his dominions.

9. Francis was glad to ally himself even with the Turks to cope with the imperialists, and Barbarossa

invaded Italy; but the troops of Charles prevented the co-operation of the French, and separately defeated and dispersed the allied powers, while another army of the imperialists ravaged Champagne and Picardy.

10. In the interval of a truce, which was concluded at Nice for ten years between the rival monarchs, Charles passed through France to the Netherlands, and was entertained by Francis with the most magnificent hospitality. He had promised to grant to the French king his favourite desire, the investiture of Milan; but failing to keep his word, the war was renewed with double animosity. The French and Turkish fleets attacked Nice, but were dispersed by the Genoese admiral Andrea Doria. In Italy the French were victorious in the battle of Cerizoles, but drew no benefit from this partial advantage. The imperialists, on the whole, had a decided superiority, and France must have been undone, had not the disorders of Germany, from the contending interests of the Catholics and Protestants, forced the emperor to conclude the treaty of Crépi with Francis (1544); who, at the same time, purchased a peace with Henry VIII., who had once more taken part with his rival. Francis died soon after (1547); a prince of great spirit and abilities, and of a generous and noble mind, unfortunate only from the necessity of struggling against a power which overmatched him both in policy and in resources.

11. A short time before this period was founded (1535) the order of the Jesuits by Ignatius Loyola. The principle of the order was implicit obedience and submission to the pope. The brethren were not confined to their cloisters, but allowed to mix with the world; and thus, by gaining the confidence of princes and statesmen, they were enabled to direct the policy of nations to the great end of establishing the supreme authority of the holy see. The wealth they accumulated, the extent of their power,

and the supposed consequences of their intrigues to the peace of nations, excited at length a general hostility to their order; and the institution has recently been abolished in all the kingdoms of Europe.

12. If Charles V. aimed at universal empire, he was ever at a distance from the object of his wishes. The formidable confederacy of the Protestants to preserve their liberties and their religion, gave him perpetual disquiet in Germany. He never could form his dominions into a well-connected body, from the separate national interests of the Spaniards, Flemish, and Germans; and even the imperial states were divided by their jealousies, political and religious. The hostilities of foreign powers gave him continual annoyance. He found in Henry II. the successor of Francis, an antagonist as formidable as his father. His cares and difficulties increased as he advanced in life, and at length entirely broke the vigour of his mind. In a state of melancholy despondency, he retired from the world at the age of fifty-six, resigning first the kingdom of Spain to his son Philip II. (1556), and afterwards the imperial crown in favour of his brother Ferdinand, who was elected emperor 24th February, 1558.

XXXVIII.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

1. Previous to the reign of Maximilian I. the Germanic empire was subject to all the disorders of the feudal governments. The general diets of the states were tumultuous and indecisive, and their constant wars with each other kept the whole in anarchy and barbarism. Wenceslaus, in 1383, endeavoured to remedy these evils by the enactment of a genera peace; but no effectual means were taken for securing it. Albert II. attempted to accomplish the

same end, and had some success. He divided Germany into six circles, each regulated by its own diet; but the jealousies of the states prompted them constantly to hostilities, which there was no superior power sufficient to restrain.

2. At length Maximilian I. procured, in 1500, that solemn enactment which established a perpetual peace among the Germanic states, under the cogent penalty of the aggressor being treated as a common enemy. He established the imperial chamber, for the settlement of all differences. The empire was divided anew into ten circles, each sending its representatives to the imperial chamber, and bound to enforce the public laws through its own territory. A regency was appointed to subsist in the intervals of the diet, composed of twenty members, over whom the emperor presided.

3. These regulations, however wise, would probably have failed of their end, but for the influence of the house of Austria, which has for three centuries continued to occupy the imperial throne. The ambition and policy of Charles V. would have been dangerous to the freedom of the German princes, had not the new system of preserving a balance of power in Europe made these princes find allies and protectors sufficient to traverse the emperor's schemes of absolute dominion. He attained, however, an authority far beyond that of any of his predecessors. The succeeding emperors imitated his policy, but without his talents, and therefore found yet stronger obstacles to their encroachments on the freedom of the states.

4. The Germanic liberties were settled for the last time by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, which fixed the emperor's prerogatives, and the privileges of the states. The constitution of the empire is not framed for the ordinary ends of government, the prosperity and happiness of the people. It regards not the rights of the subjects, but only the independence of the several princes; and its sole object is

to maintain each in the enjoyment of its sovereignty and prevent usurpations, and encroachments on each other's territories. It has no relation to the particular government of the states, each of which has its own laws and constitution, some more free, and others more despotic.

5. The general diet has the power of enacting the public laws of the empire. It consists of three colleges, the electors, the princes, and the free cities. All such public laws, and all general measures, are the subject of the separate deliberation of the electoral college and that of the princes. When jointly approved by them, the resolution is canvassed by the college of the free cities, and, if agreed to, becomes a *placitum* of the empire. If approved finally by the emperor, it is a *conclusum*, or general law. If disapproved, the resolution is of no effect. Moreover, the emperor must be the proposer of all general laws. Still farther, no complaint or request can be made by any of the princes to the diet without the approbation of the elector Archbishop of Mentz, who may refuse it at his pleasure. These constitutional defects are the more hurtful in their consequences from the separate and often contending interests of the princes, who have all the rights of sovereignty, the power of contracting foreign alliances, and are frequently possessed of foreign dominions of far greater value than their imperial territories.

6. The Germanic constitution has, however, in some respects its advantages. The particular diets of each circle tend to unite those princes in all matters of national concern, whatever may be the discordance of their individual interests. The regulations made in those diets make up for the want of a general legislative power. Besides the circular diets, the electors, the princes, the free cities, the Catholics, and the Protestants, hold their particular diets, when their common interests require it; and these powers balance each other. Considered, therefore, solely in the light of a league of several

independent princes and states associating for their common benefit, the Germanic constitution has many advantages in promoting general harmony, securing the rights of its members, and preventing the weak from being oppressed by the strong.

XXXIX.

OF THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND, AND THE REVOLUTION IN DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

1. The age of Charles V. is the era of the Reformation of religion, of the discovery of the new world, and of the highest splendour of the fine arts in Italy and the south of Europe. We shall treat in order of each of these great objects; and, first, of the Reformation.

The voluptuous taste and the splendid projects of pope Leo X. demanding large supplies of money, he instituted through all the Christian kingdoms a sale of indulgences, or remittances from the pains of purgatory. This traffic being abused to the most shocking purposes, Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, took upon him to preach against it, and to inveigh with acrimony against the power which authorized it. He found many willing hearers, particularly in the electorate of Saxony, of which the prince Frederick was his friend and protector. Leo X. condemned his tenets by a papal bull, which only increased the zeal and indignation of the preacher. In a book he published, called the *Babylonish Captivity*, he applied all the scriptural attributes of the whore of Babylon to the papal hierarchy, and attacked with equal force and virulence the doctrines of transubstantiation, purgatory, the celibacy of the priests, and the refusal of wine in the communion to the people. The book being condemned to the

flames, Luther took upon him to burn the pope's bull and the decretals at Wittemberg (1520).

2. One of the first champions who took up the pen against Luther was Henry VIII. of England, whose book, presented to pope Leo, procured him the title, now annexed to the crown, of Defender of the Faith. The rest of Europe seemed to pay little attention to these rising controversies. Charles V. studious of the friendship of the pope, took part against Luther, and summoned him to answer for his doctrines in the diet of Worms. The reformer defended himself with great spirit, and, aided by his friend the elector, made a safe escape into Saxony, where the mass was now universally abolished, the images destroyed, and the convents shut up. The friars and nuns returned to the world, and Luther took a nun for his wife. Nor did these secularized priests abuse their new freedom, for their manners were decent and their life exemplary.

3. Erasmus has justly censured the impolicy of the Catholic clergy in their modes of resisting and suppressing the new doctrines. They allowed them to be discussed in sermons before the people, and employed for that purpose furious and bigoted declaimers, who only increased and widened differences. They would not yield in the most insignificant trifle, nor acknowledge a single fault; and they persecuted with the utmost cruelty all whose opinions were not agreeable to their own standard of faith. How wise is the counsel of Lord Bacon! 'There is no better way to stop the rise of new sects and schisms, than to reform abuses, compound the lesser differences, proceed mildly from the first, refrain from sanguinary persecutions, and rather to soften and win the principal leaders, by gracing and advancing them, than to enrage them by violence and bitterness.' (*Bac. Mor. Ess. Sect.* 1. *Ess.* 12).

4. Switzerland followed in the path of reformation: Zuinglius of Zurich preached forth the new tenets with such zeal and effect, that the whole

canton were his converts, and the senate publicly abolished the mass, and purified the churches. Berne took the same measures with yet greater solemnity, after a discussion in the senate which lasted two months. Bâle imitated the same example. Others of the cantons armed in defence of their faith; and in a desperate engagement, in which the Protestants were defeated, Zuinglius was slain (1531).

5. Lutheranism was now making its progress towards the north of Europe. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were at this time governed by Christiern II., the Nero of the north. The Swedes, reluctantly submitting to the yoke, were kept in awe by Troll, archbishop of Upsal, a faithful minister of the tyrant in all his schemes of oppression and cruelty. On intelligence of a revolt the king and his primate, armed with a bull from pope Leo X., massacred the whole body of the nobles and senators, amidst the festivity of a banquet. Gustavus Vasa, grandnephew of Charles Canutson, formerly king of Sweden, escaped from this carnage, and concealed himself in the mines of Dalecarlia. By degrees assembling a small army, he defeated the generals of Christiern, whose cruelties at length determined the united nations to vindicate their rights, by a solemn sentence of deposition. The tyrant fled to Flanders, and Frederick duke of Holstein was elected sovereign of the three kingdoms, though Sweden, adhering to her heroic deliverer, and the heir of her ancient kings, acknowledged alone the sovereignty of Gustavus Vasa (1521). The bull of Leo X. and its bloody consequences, were sufficient to convert Sweden and Denmark to the tenets of the reformed religion. Gustavus enjoyed his sceptre many years in peace, and contributed greatly to the happiness and prosperity of his kingdom.

6. As early as 1525, the states of Saxony, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, and the cities of Strasburgh and Frankfort, had embraced the doctrines of the Refor-

mation. Luther had now a species of spiritual control, which he exercised by the medium of a synod of six reformers. His successful example gave rise to reformers of different kinds, whose doctrines were less consonant to reason or good policy. Two fanatics of Saxony, Storck and Muncer, condemned infant baptism (hence termed Anabaptists). They preached up universal equality and freedom of religious opinion, but, with singular inconsistency, attempted to propagate their doctrines by the sword. They were defeated at Mulhausen, and Muncer died on a scaffold; but the party seemed to acquire new courage. They surprised Munster, expelled the bishop, and anointed for their king a tailor, named Jack of Leyden, who defended the city with the most desperate courage, but fell at length with his party under the superior force of regular troops. The Anabaptists, thus sanguinary in their original tenets and practices, have long ago become peaceable and harmless subjects.

7. The united power of the pope and emperor found it impossible to check the progress of the Reformation. The diet of Spires proposed articles of accommodation between the Lutherans and Catholics. Fourteen cities of Germany, and several of the electors, protested formally against those articles; and hence the Lutheran party acquired the name of *Protestants*. They presented to the assembly at Augsburg a confession of their faith, which is the standard of the Protestant doctrines.

8. The virtuous lives and conduct of the Protestant leaders, compared with those of the higher clergy among the Catholics, formed a contrast very favourable to the progress of the Reformation. The solemn manner in which the states of Switzerland, and particularly Geneva, had proceeded, in calmly discussing every point of controversy, and yielding only to the force of rational conviction, attracted the respect of all Europe. John Calvin, a Frenchman, becoming a zealous convert to the new doc-

trines, was the first who gave them a systematic form by his *Institutions*, and enforced their authority by the establishment of synods, consistories, and deacons. The magistracy of Geneva gave these ordinances the authority of the law; and they were adopted by six of the Swiss cantons, by the Protestants of France, and the Presbyterians of Scotland and England. The ablest advocates of Calvin will find it difficult to vindicate him from the charge of intolerance and the spirit of persecution; but these, which are the vices or defects of the individual, attach not in the least to the doctrines of the Reformation, which are subject to the test of reason, and can derive no blemish or dishonour from the men who propagated them, or even the motives which might influence some of their earliest supporters. This observation applies more particularly to the subject of the ensuing section.

XL.

OF THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND UNDER HENRY VIII. AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. WICKLIFFE, in the middle of the fourteenth century, by an attack on the doctrines of transubstantiation, indulgences, and auricular confession, and yet more by translation of the Scriptures into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the minds of the people of England for a revolution in religious opinions; but his professed followers were not numerous. The intemperate passions of Henry VIII. were the immediate cause of the Reformation in England. He had been married for eighteen years to Catharine of Spain, aunt of Charles V., by whom he had three children, one of them, Mary, afterwards queen of England; when falling in love with Anna Bullen, he solicited Clement VII. for a divorce from Catharine on the score of her former marriage to

his elder brother Arthur. The pope found himself in the painful dilemma of either affronting the emperor, or mortally offending the king of England. In hope that the king's passion might cool, he spun off the time by preliminaries and negotiations, but to no purpose. Henry was resolutely bent on accomplishing his wishes. The Sorbonne and other French universities gave an opinion in his favour; and armed with this sanction he caused Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury to annul his marriage. The repudiated queen gave place to Anna Bullen. On this occasion Wolsey, the minister of Henry, lost the favour of his master, by opposing, as was believed, his darling measure.

2. Clement VII., from this specimen of the wayward temper of Henry, resolved to keep well with the emperor, and issued his bull, condemnatory of the sentence of the archbishop of Canterbury. Henry immediately proclaimed himself head of the church of England; the parliament ratified his title, and the pope's authority was instantly suppressed in all his dominions (1534). He proceeded to abolish the monasteries, and confiscate their treasures and revenues, erecting out of the latter six new bishoprics and a college. The immoralities of the monks were sedulously exposed, the forgery of relics, false miracles, &c., held up to the popular scorn.

3. Yet Henry, though a reformer, and pope in his own kingdom, had not renounced the religion of Rome; he was equally an enemy to the tenets of Luther and Calvin as to the pope's jurisdiction in England. Inconstant in his affections, and a stranger to all humanity, he removed Anna Bullen from the throne to the scaffold, to gratify a new passion for Jane Seymour, a maid of honour, who happily died about a year after. To her succeeded Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced in nine months, to make way for Catharine Howard. She underwent the same fate with Anna Bullen, on a similar suspicion of infidelity to his bed. His sixth wife, Catharine

Parr, with difficulty retained her hazardous elevation, but had the good fortune to survive the tyrant.

4. On the death of Henry VIII. (1547), and the accession of his son Edward VI., the Protestant religion prevailed in England, and was favoured by the sovereign; but he died at the early age of fifteen (1553); and the sceptre passed to the hands of his sister Mary, an intolerant Catholic, and most cruel persecutor of the Protestants. In her reign, which was but of five years' duration, above 800 miserable victims were burnt at the stake, martyrs to their religious opinions. Mary inherited a congenial spirit with her husband, Philip II. of Spain, whose intolerance cost him the loss of a third part of his dominions.

5. Mary was succeeded (1558) by her sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anna Bullen, a Protestant, and the more zealous from an abhorrence of the character of her predecessor. In her reign the religion of England became stationary. The hierarchy was established in its present form, by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons, the king being by law the head of the church. The liturgy had been settled in the reign of Edward VI. The canons are agreeable chiefly to the Lutheran tenets.

Of the Reformation in Scotland, we shall afterwards treat under a separate section.

XLI.

OF THE DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF AMERICA.

1. Among those great events which distinguished the age of Charles V., was the conquest of Mexico by Ferdinando Cortez, and of Peru by the Pizarros. The discovery of America had preceded the first of these events about twenty-seven years; but we have postponed the mention of it till now, that the whole may be shortly treated in connexion.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, a man of enterprising spirit, having in vain solicited encouragement from his native state, from Portugal, and from England, to attempt discoveries in the western seas, applied to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, who furnished him with three small ships, ninety men, and a few thousand ducats for the charges of his voyage. After thirty-three days' sail from the Canaries, he discovered San Salvador, and soon after the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola; whence returning, accompanied by some of the natives, some presents in gold, and curiosities of the country, he was treated by the Spaniards with the highest honours, and soon supplied with a suitable armament for the prosecution of his discoveries. In his second voyage he discovered the Caribbees and Jamaica. In a third voyage he descried the continent of America, within ten degrees of the line, towards the isthmus of Panama. To this continent the geographer Americus, who, five years after, followed the footsteps of Columbus, had the undeserved honour of giving his name.

2. The inhabitants of America and its islands were a race of men quite new to the Europeans. They are of the colour of copper, and have no beard. In some quarters, as in Mexico and Peru, the Spaniards found a flourishing empire, and a people polished, refined, and luxurious. In others, man was a naked savage, the member of a wandering tribe, whose sole occupation was hunting or war. The savages of the continent were characterized alike by their cruelty to their enemies, their contempt of death, and their generous affection for their friends. The inhabitants of the islands were a milder race, of gentler manners, and less hardy conformation of body and mind. The larger animals, as the horse, the cow, were unknown in America.

3. To the inhabitants of those new discovered countries, which were believed to contain inexhaustible treasures, the Spaniards, under the pretence

of religion and policy, conducted themselves with the most shocking inhumanity. The rack, the scourge, the faggot, were employed to convert them to Christianity. They were hunted down like wild beasts, or burnt alive in their thickets and fastnesses. Hispaniola, containing three millions of inhabitants, and Cuba containing above six hundred thousand, were, in a few years, absolutely depopulated. It was now resolved to explore the continent; and Ferdinando Cortez, with eleven ships and 617 men, sailed for that purpose from Cuba in 1519. Landing at Tabasco, he advanced, though with a brave opposition from the natives, into the heart of the country. The state of Tlascala, after ineffectual resistance, became the ally of the Spaniards; and on their approach to Mexico, the terror of their name had paved the way for an easy conquest.

4. The Mexican empire, though founded little more than a century before this period, had arisen to great splendour. Its sovereign Montezuma received the invaders with the reverence due to superior beings. But a short acquaintance opened the eyes of the Mexicans; and finding nothing in the Spaniards beyond what was human, they were daring enough to attack, and put to death a few of them. The intrepid Cortez immediately marched to the palace with fifty men, and putting the emperor in irons, carried him off prisoner to his camp. The astonished Mexicans submitted to every term, and agreed to redeem their sovereign by the surrender of all the imperial treasures.

5. Velasquez, governor of Cuba, jealous of Cortez, attempted to supersede him, by despatching a superior army to the continent; but the latter defeating his troops, compelled them to join his own banners. In an attack from the Mexicans for the rescue of their sovereign, Montezuma having offered to mediate between the Mexicans and their enemies, was indignantly put to death by one of his own subjects. The whole empire, under its new sovereign, Guatimozin,

was now armed against the Spaniards; and while the plains were covered with their archers and spearmen, the lake of Mexico was filled with armed canoes. To oppose the latter, the Spaniards built a few vessels under the walls of their city, and soon evinced their superiority on both elements to their feeble foe. The monarch was taken prisoner by the officers of Cortez, and refusing to discover his treasures was stretched naked on burning coals. Soon after, on the discovery of a conspiracy against the Spaniards, the wretched Guatimozin, with all the princes of his blood, were executed on a gibbet. This was the last blow to the power of the Mexicans, and Cortez was now absolute master of the whole empire (1527).

6. In the same year (1527), Diego d'Almagro, and Francis Pizarro, with 250 foot, sixty horse, and twelve small pieces of cannon, landed in Peru, a large and flourishing empire, governed by an ancient race of monarchs, named Incas. The inca Atabalipa receiving the Spaniards with reverence, they immediately required him to embrace the Christian faith, and surrender all his dominions to the emperor Charles V., who had obtained a gift of them from the pope. The proposal being misunderstood, or received with hesitation, Pizarro seized the monarch as his prisoner, while his troops massacred 5000 of the Peruvians on the spot. The empire was now plundered of prodigious treasures in gold and precious stones; but Atabalipa being suspected of concealing a part from his insatiable invaders, was solemnly tried as a criminal, and strangled at a stake.

7. The courage of the Spaniards surpassed even their inhumanity. D'Almagro marched 500 leagues through continual opposition, to Cusco, and penetrated across the Cordilleras into Chili, two degrees beyond the southern tropic. He was slain in a civil war between him and his associate Francis Pizarro, who was soon after assassinated by the party of his rival. At this time the Spaniards discovered the

inexhaustible silver mines of Potosi, which they compelled the Peruvians to work for their advantage. They are now wrought by the negroes of Africa. The native Peruvians, who are a weakly race of men, were soon almost exterminated by cruelty and intolerable labour. The humane bishop of Chiapa remonstrated with success to Charles V. on this subject, and the residue of this miserable people have been since treated with more indulgence.

8. The Spanish acquisitions in America belonged to the crown, and not to the state: they were the absolute property of the sovereign, and regulated solely by his will. They were governed by the three viceroys of Mexico, Peru, and Terra Firma, who exercised supreme civil and military authority over their provinces. There were eleven courts of audience for the administration of justice, with whose judicial proceedings the viceroys could not interfere; and their judgments were subject to appeal to the Royal Council of the Indies, whose jurisdiction extended to every department, ecclesiastical, civil, military, and commercial. A tribunal in Spain, called *Casa de la Contratacion*, regulated the departure of the fleets, and their destination and equipment, under the control of the council of the Indies.

9. The gold and silver of Spanish America, though the exclusive property of the crown of Spain, has by means of wars, marriages of princes, and extension of commerce, come into general circulation, and has greatly increased the quantity of specie, and diminished the value of money over all Europe.

XLII

POSSESSIONS OF THE OTHER EUROPEAN NATIONS IN AMERICA.

1. The example of the Spaniards excited a desire in the other nations of Europe to participate with

them in the riches of the new world. The French, in 1557, attempted to form a settlement on the coast of Brazil, where the Portuguese had already established themselves from the beginning of the century. The colony was divided by faction, and was soon utterly destroyed by the Portuguese. It is one of the richest of the American settlements, both from the produce of its soil, and its mines of gold and precious stones.

2. The Spaniards were in possession of Florida, when the French attempted to colonize it in 1564, but without success. The French then established a settlement in Canada, and founded Quebec in 1608; but the colony was perpetually subject to attack from the English. In 1629 the French had not a foot of territory in America. Canada has been repeatedly taken by the English, and restored, by different treaties, to the French; but it has now, for many years, been permanently a British settlement. The French drew their greatest advantages from the islands of St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, and Martinico. From their continental possessions of Louisiana, and the settlements on the Mississippi, which they have now lost, they never derived any solid benefit.

3. The Dutch have no other settlement on the continent of America but Surinam, a part of Guiana; and in the West Indies, the islands of Curaçoa and St. Eustatius. The Danes possess the inconsiderable islands of St. Thomas, and Santa Cruz.

4. The British have extensive settlements on the continent of America, and the West India islands. England derived her right to her settlements in North America from the first discovery of the country by Sebastian Cabot in 1499, a few years after the discovery of South America by Columbus; but there were no attempts to colonize any part of the country till about a century afterwards, when Sir Walter Raleigh planted the colony of Virginia, so named in honour of his Queen. Nova Scotia was

planted under James I., and New England in the reign of Charles I., chiefly by the refugee Puritans. New York and Pennsylvania were in the hands of the Dutch till conquered by the English in the reign of Charles II., who granted a gift of the latter province, with a charter of privileges, to William Penn the quaker. Maryland was colonized in the time of Charles I. by English Catholics. The Carolinas were settled in the reign of Charles II. Georgia was not colonized till the reign of George II. The Floridas were ceded to Britain by Spain at the peace of 1763.

5. The British American colonies, under which name we include the United States, are greatly inferior in natural riches to those of the Spaniards, as they produce neither silver nor gold, indigo nor cochineal; but they are in general of fertile soil, and highly improved by industry; and they afford a most profitable market for home manufactures. The produce of the West India islands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, the Granadas, &c., in sugar, cotton, tobacco, &c., is of very great value to the mother country.

XLIII.

OF THE STATE OF THE FINE ARTS IN EUROPE IN THE AGE OF LEO X.

1. In enumerating those great objects which characterized the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth century, we remarked the high advancement to which the fine arts attained in Europe in the age of Leo X. The strong bent which the human mind seems to take in certain periods to one class of pursuits in preference to all others, as in that age to the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, may be in part accounted for from moracauses; such as the peaceful state of a country, the

genius or taste of its sovereigns, and their liberal encouragement of those arts; the general emulation that arises where one or two artists are of confessed eminence; and the aid which they derive from the studies and works of each other. These causes have doubtless great influence, but do not seem entirely sufficient to account for the phenomenon. The operation of such causes must be slow and gradual. In the case of the fine arts, the transition from obscurity to splendour was rapid and instantaneous. From the contemptible mediocrity in which they had remained for ages, they rose at one step to the highest pitch of excellence.

2. The arts of painting and sculpture were buried in the West under the ruins of the Roman empire. They gradually declined in the latter ages, as we may perceive by the series of the coins of the lower empire. The Ostrogoths, instead of destroying, sought to preserve, the monuments of taste and genius. They were even the inventors of some of the arts dependent on design, as the composition of Mosaic. But, in the middle ages, those arts were at a very low ebb in Europe. They began, however, to revive a little about the end of the thirteenth century. Cimabue, a Florentine, from the sight of the paintings of some Greek artists in one of the churches, began to attempt similar performances, and soon excelled his models. His scholars were, Ghiotto, Gaddi, Tasi, Cavallini, and Stephano Fiorentino; and these formed an academy at Florence in 1350.

3. The works of these early painters, with some fidelity of imitation, had not a spark of grace or elegance; and such continued to be the state of the art till towards the end of the fifteenth century, when it arose at once to the summit of perfection. Raphael painted at first in the hard manner of his master Perugino; but soon deserted it, and struck at once into the noble, elegant, and graceful; in short, the imitation of the *antique*. This change was the re-

sult of genius alone. The ancient sculptures were familiar to the early painters, but they had looked on them with cold indifference. They were now surveyed by other eyes. Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Leonardo da Vinci, were animated by the same genius that formed the Grecian Apelles, Zeuxis, Glycon, Phidias, and Praxiteles.

4. Nor was Italy alone thus distinguished. Germany, Flanders, and Switzerland, produced in the same age artists of consummate merit. Before the notice of these, we shall briefly characterize the schools of Italy.

5. First in order is the school of Florence, of which the most eminent master was Michael Angelo, born in 1474. His works are characterized by a profound knowledge of the anatomy of the human figure, perhaps chiefly formed on the contemplation of the ancient sculptures. His paintings exhibit the grand, the sublime, and terrible; but he drew not from the antique its simple grace and beauty.

6. The Roman school was founded by Raphael d' Urbino, born 1483. This great painter united almost every excellence of the art. In invention, grace, majestic simplicity, forcible expression of the passions, he stands unrivalled, and far beyond all competition. He has borrowed liberally, but without servility, from the antique.

7. Of the school of Lombardy, or the Venetian, the most eminent artists were, Titian, Giorgione, Correggio, and Parmegiano. Titian is most eminent in portrait, and in the painting of female beauty. Such is the truth of his colouring, that his figures are nature itself. It was the testimony of Michael Angelo to the merits of Titian, that, if he had studied at Rome or Florence amidst the masterpieces of antiquity, he would have eclipsed all the painters in the world. Giorgione, with similar merits, was cut off in the flower of his youth. Titian lived to the age of a hundred. Correggio was superior in colouring, and knowledge of light and shade, to all

that have preceded or followed him. This knowledge was the result of study; in other painters those effects are frequently accidental, as we observe they are not uniform. Parmegiano imitated the graceful manner of Raphael, but carried it to a degree of affectation.

8. Such were the three original Italian schools. The character of the Florentine is grandeur and sublimity, with great excellence of design, but a want of grace, of skill in colouring, and effect of light and shade. The character of the Roman is equal excellence of design, a grandeur tempered with moderation and simplicity, a high degree of grace and elegance, and a superior knowledge, though not an excellence, in colouring. The character of the Venetian is the perfection of colouring, and the utmost force of light and shade, with an inferiority in every other particular.

9. To the school of Raphael succeeded the second Roman school, or that of the Caraccis, three brothers, of whom Annibal was the most excellent. His scholars were, Guercino, Albano, Lanfranc, Domenichino, and Guido. Of these, though all eminent painters, the first and last were the most excellent. The elegant contours of Guercino, and the strength, sweetness, and majesty of Guido, are the admiration of all true judges of painting.

10. In the same age the Flemish school, though of a quite different character, and inferior to the Italian, shone with great lustre. Oil painting was invented by the Flemings in the fifteenth century: and, in that age, Heemskirk, Frans Floris, Quintin Matsys, and the German Albert Durer, were deservedly distinguished. Of the Flemish school Rubens, though a painter of a much later age, is the chief ornament. His figures, though too corpulent, are drawn with great truth and nature, and he possesses inexhaustible invention, and great skill in the expression of the passions. Switzerland produced Hans Holbein, a painter of great eminence in por-

trait, and remarkable for truth of colouring. Of his works, from his residence at the court of Henry VIII., there are more specimens in Britain than those of any other foreign painter.—Holland had likewise its painters, whose chief merit was the faithful representation of vulgar nature, and perfect knowledge of the mechanism of the art, the power of colours, and the effect of light and shade.

11. With the art of painting, sculpture and architecture were likewise revived in the same age, and brought to high perfection. The universal genius of Michael Angelo shone equally conspicuous in all the three departments. His statue of Bacchus was judged by Raphael to be the work of Phidias or Praxiteles.—The Grecian architecture was first revived by the Florentines in the fourteenth century; and the cathedral of Pisa was constructed partly from the materials of an ancient Greek temple. The art arrived at high perfection in the age of Leo X., when the church of St. Peter's at Rome, under the direction of Bramante, San Gallo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, exhibited the noblest specimen of architecture in the universe.

12. The invention of the art of engraving on copper by Tomaso Finiguerra, a goldsmith of Florence, is dated about 1460. From Italy it travelled into Flanders, where it was first practised by Martin Schoen of Antwerp. His scholar was the celebrated Albert Durer, who engraved with excellence both on copper and on wood. Etching on copper by means of aqua-fortis, which gives more ease than the stroke of the graver, was discovered by Parmegiano, who executed in that manner his own beautiful designs. No art underwent in its early stages so rapid an improvement as that of engraving. In the course of 150 years from its invention, it attained nearly to its perfection; for there has been but little proportional improvement in the last century, since the days of Audran, Poilly, and Edelinck.

13. The art of engraving in mezzotinto is of much

later date than the ordinary mode of engraving on copper. It was the invention of Prince Rupert about 1650. It is characterized by a softness equal to that of the pencil, and a happy blending of light and shade, and is therefore peculiarly adapted to portrait, where those requisites are most essential.

14. The age of Leo X. was likewise an era of very high literary splendour; but of the distinguished writers of that period we shall afterwards treat, in a connected view of the progress of literature and the sciences during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

XLIV.

OF THE OTTOMAN POWER IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. From the period of the taking of Constantinople, in the middle of the fifteenth century, the Turks were a great and conquering people. In the sixteenth century, Selim I. after subduing Syria and Mesopotamia, undertook the conquest of Egypt, then governed by the Mamelukes, a race of Circassians, who had seized the country in 1250, and put an end to the government of the Arabian princes, the posterity of Saladin. The conquest of Egypt by Selim made little change in the form of its government. It professes to own the sovereignty of the Turks, but is in reality governed still by the Mameluke Beys.

2. Solyman (the Magnificent), son of Selim, was, like his predecessors, a great conqueror. The island of Rhodes, possessed by the Knights of St. John, was a darling object of his ambition. These knights had expelled the Saracens from the island in 1310. Solyman attacked Rhodes with 140,000 men and 400 ships. The Rhodian knights, aided by the English, Italians, and Spaniards, made a noble

defence; but after a siege of many months, were forced to capitulate, and evacuate the island (1522), which has been the property of the Turks ever since. The commercial laws of the ancient Rhodians were adopted by the Romans, and are at this day the foundation of the maritime jurisprudence of all the nations of Europe.

3. Solyman subdued the greatest part of Hungary, Moldavia, and Wallachia, and took from the Persians Georgia and Bagdat. His son Selim II. took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1571. They applied to the pope for aid, who, together with Philip II. of Spain, entered into a triple alliance against the Ottoman power. An armament of 250 ships of war, commanded by Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria, was opposed to 250 Turkish galleys in the gulf of Lepanto, near Corinth; and the Turks were defeated, with the loss of 150 ships and 15,000 men (1571). This great victory was soon after followed by the taking of Tunis by the same commander.

4. But these successes were of little consequence. The Ottoman power continued extremely formidable. Under Amurath II. the Turks made encroachments on Hungary, and subdued a part of Persia. Mahomet III. though a barbarian in his private character, supported the dignity of the empire and extended its dominions. The Ottoman power declined from his time, and yielded to that of the Persians under Schah-Abbas the Great, who wrested from the Turks a large part of their lately acquired dominions.

XLV.

STATE OF PERSIA AND THE OTHER ASIATIC KINGDOMS IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. The great empire of Persia, in the end of the fifteenth century, underwent a revolution on account

of religion. Haydar or Sophi, a religious enthusiast, established a new sect of Mahometans, which held Ali to be the successor of Mahomet instead of Omar, and abolished the pilgrimages to Mecca. The Persians eagerly embraced a doctrine which distinguished them from their enemies the Turks; and Ismael, the son of Sophi, following the example of Mahomet, enforced his opinions by the sword. He subdued all Persia and Armenia, and left this vast empire to his descendants.

2. Schah-Abbas, surnamed the Great, was the great-grandson of Ismael Sophi. He ruled his empire with despotic sway, but with most able policy. He regained the provinces which had been taken by the Turks, and drove the Portuguese from their settlement of Ormuz. He rebuilt the fallen cities of Persia, and contributed greatly to the introduction of arts and civilization. His son Schah-Sesi reigned weakly and unfortunately. In his time, Schah-Gean, the Great Mogul, deprived Persia of Candahar, and the Turks took Bagdat in 1638. From that period the Persian monarchy gradually declined. Its sovereigns became the most despicable slaves to their own ministers; and a revolution in the beginning of the eighteenth century put an end to the dynasty of the Sophis, and gave the throne to the Afghan princes, a race of Tartars.

3. The government of Persia is almost as despotic as that of Turkey. The sovereign draws a small yearly tax from every subject, and receives likewise stated gifts on particular occasions. The crown is hereditary, with the exclusion of females; but the sons of a daughter succeed in their room. There is no other rank in Persia than that annexed to office, which is held during the monarch's pleasure. The national religion is the Mahometan, as reformed by Sophi. The sect of the Guebres preserves the religion of Zoroaster, as contained in the Zendavesta and Sadder, (see *supra*, Part I. Sect. XI.) and keep alive the sacred fire.

4. The poetry of the Persians displays great fancy and luxuriance of imagery. The epic poet Firdousi is said to rival the various merits of Homer and Ariosto; and the writings of Sadi and Hafez, both in prose and poetry, are admired by all who are conversant in oriental literature.

5. *Tartary*.—From this vast tract of country sprang those conquerors who produced all the great revolutions in Asia. The Turks, a race of Tartars, overwhelmed the empire of the caliphs. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered Persia and a great part of India in the tenth century. The Tartar Gengiskan subdued India, China, Persia, and Asiatic Russia, in the beginning of the thirteenth century. Batoucan, one of his sons, ravaged to the frontiers of Germany. Tamerlane, the scourge of the Turks, and conqueror of a great part of Asia. was of the race of Gengiskan. Babar, great-grandson of Tamerlane, subdued all between Samarcand and Agra in the empire of the Mogul. The descendants of those conquerors reign in India, Persia, and China; but Tartary itself is no more than a vast desert, inhabited by wandering tribes, who follow the life of the ancient Scythians.

6. *Thibet*.—This southern part of Tartary exhibits the phenomenon of a kingdom governed by a living god, the Dalai Lama, or Great Lama, whose divinity is acknowledged not only by his own subjects, but over China and a part of India. This god is a young man whom the priests educate and train to his function, and in whose name they in reality govern the kingdom.

XLVI.

HISTORY OF INDIA.

1. The earliest accounts of this great tract of civilized country are those of Herodotus, who lived about a century before Alexander the Great; and it

is remarkable that the character given of the people by that early writer corresponds perfectly with that of the modern Hindoos. He had probably taken his accounts from Scylax of Cariandria, whom Darius Hystaspes had sent to explore the country. But it was not till the age of Alexander that the Greeks had any particular knowledge of that extraordinary people. Alexander penetrated into the Panjab, where his troops refusing to proceed, he embarked on the Hydaspes, which runs into the Indus, and thence pursued his course for above 1000 miles to the ocean. The narrative given by Arrian of this expedition was taken from the mouths of Alexander's officers; and its particulars tally yet more remarkably than those of Herodotus with the modern manners of the Hindoos.

2. India was visited by Seleucus, to whose share it fell in the partition of Alexander's empire; and Antiochus the Great, 200 years afterwards, made a short expedition thither. It is probable too that some small intercourse subsisted between the Greek empire of Bactriana and India; but, till the fifteenth century, no European power thought of forming any establishment in that country; though, from the age of Alexander down to the period of the Portuguese discoveries, there had constantly been some commercial intercourse between Europe and India, both by sea and across the desert.

3. The Mahometans, as early as A. D. 1000, had begun to establish an empire in India. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered a great part of the country, and established his capital at Ghazna, near the sources of the Indus, extirpating, wherever he came, the Hindoo religion, and establishing the Mahometan in its stead. Mohammed Gori, in 1194, penetrated to Benares, and one of his successors fixed the seat of his empire at Delhi, which has continued to be the capital of the Mogul princes. The sovereignty founded by Mahmoud was overwhelmed in 1222 by Gengiskan, as was his empire in the following century by Tamer-

lane, whose posterity are at this day on the throne of the Mogul empire.

4. The Mogul empire was, even in the beginning of the eighteenth century, the most powerful and flourishing of all the Asiatic monarchies, under Aurengzebe, the son of Schah-Gean, who, though a monster of cruelty, and most despotic tyrant, enjoyed a life prolonged to nearly a hundred years, crowned with uninterrupted prosperity and success. He extended his empire over the whole peninsula of India within the Ganges.

5. The dominion of the Mogul was not absolute over all the countries which composed his empire. Tamerlane allowed the petty princes, Rajahs or Nabobs, to retain their territories, of which their descendants are at this day in possession. They paid a tribute to the Great Mogul, as an acknowledgment of his sovereignty, and observed the treaties agreed to by their ancestors; but they were in other respects independent princes.

6. Bengal became a part of the Mogul's empire by conquest in the end of the sixteenth century, and was commonly governed by a son of the Great Mogul, who had under him several inferior nabobs, the former princes of the country. Such was its condition when the British East India Company,* between 1751 and 1760, conquered and obtained possession of that kingdom, together with Bahar and part of Orissa, a large, populous, and most flourishing country, containing above ten millions of inhabitants, and pro-

* The first charter of the East India Company was dated the 31st of December, 1600. In 1612 they obtained permission of the court of Delhi to establish a factory at Surat. In 1640 permission was obtained from the native authorities to build Fort St. George. In 1658 Madras was raised to the station of a presidency. In 1698 they obtained a grant of Calcutta and two adjoining villages; with leave to exercise judiciary power over the inhabitants, and to erect fortifications. These were soon after constructed, and received the name of Fort William, and the district was raised to the rank of a presidency. In 1717 they obtained farther important grants and privileges, which were regarded as constituting the great charter of the English in India. Since that period the British empire in India has been rapidly extended, and at this time it embraces a population of upwards of one hundred millions.

ducing an immense revenue; and these territories have since that period received a considerable addition. The East India Company thence has the benefit of the whole commerce of the Mogul empire, with Arabia, Persia, and Thibet, as well as with the kingdoms of Azem, Aracan, Pegu, Siam, Malacca, China, and many of the oriental islands.

The fixed establishments of the British in the country of Indostan have afforded opportunity of obtaining much instructive knowledge relative to the ancient state of that country, of which we shall give a short sketch in the following section.

XLVII.

ANCIENT STATE OF INDIA; MANNERS, LAWS, ARTS AND SCIENCES, AND RELIGION, OF THE HINDOOS.

1. The remains of the ancient knowledge of the Hindoos have been preserved by an hereditary priesthood, in the Sanscreet language, long since extinct, and only known to a few of the Bramins. The zeal of some learned Europeans has lately opened that source of information, whence we learn the most interesting particulars of this extraordinary people, perhaps the most early cultivators of the sciences, and the instructors of all the nations of antiquity. We shall briefly notice their singular division into casts, their civil policy, their laws, their progress in the arts and sciences, and their religion.

2. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders or casts. The highest, that of the Bramins, was devoted to religion and the cultivation of the sciences: to the second belonged the preservation of the state; they were its sovereigns and its magistrates in peace, and its soldiers in war: the third were the husbandmen and merchants: and the fourth, the artisans, labourers, and servants. These are inseparable distinctions, and descend from gene-

ration to generation. Moreover, the individuals of each class follow invariably the professions of their forefathers. Every man, from his birth, knows the function allotted to him, and fulfils with ease and satisfaction the duty which he cannot avoid. Hence arises that permanence of manners and institutions which so singularly characterizes this ancient nation.

3. This classification is an artificial arrangement, which could have originated only from the mind of a legislator among a polished people, completely obedient to government. It is therefore a proof of the highly civilized state of the Hindoo nation in the most remote periods of antiquity.

4. The civil policy of the Hindoos is another proof of the same fact. At the time of Alexander the Great, India was divided into large and powerful kingdoms, governed by sovereigns whose dominion was not absolute, but controlled by the superior authority of the Bramins. A system of feudalism has ever prevailed in India; the rights to lands flow from the sovereign, to whom a certain duty is payable by the class of the husbandmen, who transmit their possessions to their children under the same tenure. Strabo and Diodorus remarked among the Indians three classes of officers; one whose department was the regulation of agriculture, tanks, highways; another which superintended the police of the cities; a third which regulated the military depart ment. The same policy prevails at this day under the Hindoo princes.

5. The jurisprudence of Hindostan is an additional proof of great antiquity and civilization. The Ayen-Akbery, and still more the compilation of Hindoo laws from the ancient Sanscreet records, made by order of Mr. Hastings, contained the jurisprudence of a refined and commercial people, among whom law itself had been a study and profession.

6. Many monuments exist in India of the advanced state of the useful and elegant arts in the remotest periods of antiquity. The ancient pagodas,

of vast extent and magnificence, whether cut in the solid rock, as in Elephanta and Salsette, or in the open air, as at Chillambrum and Seringham, the sumptuous residences of the Bramins; and the ancient hill fortresses, constructed with prodigious strength and solidity, evince a great advancement in the arts: as the resort of the most polished nations of antiquity to that country for cotton cloths, fine linen, and works in metal and in ivory, proves the superior state of those manufactures to all known at that time in Europe.

7. The late translations from the Sanscreet of several ingenious compositions of high antiquity, as the dramatic piece *Sacontala*, the *Hitòpadésa*, a series of moral apologues and fables, the *Mahabarat*, an epic poem, composed above 2000 years before the Christian era, all concur in proof of a similar advancement in literature; and we have reason to believe, from such works as are of a philosophical nature, that there is scarce a tenet of the Greek philosophy that has not been antecedently the subject of discussion among the Bramins of India.

8. The numeral ciphers, first introduced into Europe by the Arabians, were, as confessed by those authors themselves, borrowed from the Indians. It is above a century since the French philosophers evinced, by the evidence of a Siamese manuscript, containing tables for calculating the places of the heavenly bodies, the astonishing advancement made by this ancient people in the science of astronomy. A set of tables obtained lately from the Bramins by M. Gentil, goes back to an era termed *Calyougham*, commencing 3102 years before the birth of Christ. These tables are used by the modern Bramins, who are quite ignorant of the principles on which they have been constructed, and which M. Baily has shewn to be the same employed by the moderns, but with which the Greeks and Chaldeans were utterly unacquainted.

9. Lastly, From the religious opinions and wor-

ship of the Hindoos we must draw the same conclusion as from all the preceding facts. One uniform system of superstition pervades every religion of India, which is supported by the most sagacious policy, and every thing that can excite the veneration of its votaries. The Bramins, elevated above every other class of men, and exclusively acquainted with the mysteries of that religion, which it is held impious for any other class to attempt to penetrate; the implicit reliance on the authority of these Bramins; the ceremonies of their worship, fitted to impress the imagination, and affect the passions; all concurred to fortify this potent superstition, and to give its priests a supreme ascendancy over the minds of the people. But those priests themselves, enlightened as they were, rejected that false theology. Their writings demonstrate that they entertained the most rational and elevated conceptions with regard to the Supreme Being, and the support of the universe.

10. On the whole, there is a high probability that India was the great school from which the most early polished nations of Europe derived their knowledge of the arts, of sciences, and of literature.

XLVIII.

OF CHINA AND JAPAN.

1. Proceeding eastward in the survey of the Asiatic continent, the great empire of China next solicits our attention. In the end of the tenth century, China, Persia, and the greatest part of India, were ruled by the Tartar descendants of Gengiskan. The Tartar family of Yven, who conquered China, made no change in its laws and system of government, which had been permanent from time immemorial. Of this family there reigned nine successive monarchs, without any attempt by the Chinese to throw

off the Tartar yoke. The odious and contemptible character of the last of these sovereigns at length excited a rebellion, which, in 1357, drove the Tartars from the throne; and the Chinese, for 276 years, obeyed their native princes. At that period a second revolution gave the throne once more to the Tartars. Taking advantage of an insurrection in one of the provinces, they invaded China in 1641, and made an easy conquest. The emperor shut himself up in his palace, and, after putting to death all his family, finished the scene by hanging himself. The same Tartars occupy the throne of China at this day, and observe the same wise policy of maintaining inviolate the Chinese laws, policy, and manners. Of these we shall give a brief account in the subsequent section.

2. The empire of Japan was discovered by the Portuguese about the middle of the sixteenth century. The open and unsuspicious character of this industrious and polished people led them to encourage the resort of foreigners to their ports; and the Spaniards, after they had obtained the sovereignty of Portugal, carried on a most beneficial trade to the coasts of Japan. The emperor zealously promoted this intercourse, till the insatiable ambition of the Spaniards gave him alarming conviction of its danger. Under the pretence of converting the Japanese from idolatry, a vast number of priests were sent into the country, and one half of the people were speedily set at mortal variance with the other. It now became necessary to prohibit this work of conversion by an imperial edict. Still, however, a free trade was allowed, till 1637, when a conspiracy of the Spaniards was discovered for dethroning the emperor and seizing the government. An edict was issued for the expulsion of all the Spaniards and Portuguese, who were mad enough to resist, till overpowered by force of arms. Since that period all the European nations have been excluded from the ports of Japan. The Dutch only, who had been

the discoverers of the conspiracy of the Spaniards, are allowed the privilege of landing on one of the small islands, for the purposes of trade, after making oath that they are not of the Portuguese religion.

XLIX.

OF THE ANTIQUITY OF THE EMPIRE OF CHINA. STATE OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.

1. The antiquity of this vast empire, and the state of its government, laws, manners, and attainments in the arts and sciences, have furnished a most ample field of controversy. Voltaire, Raynal, and other writers of similar principles, have, for the purpose of discrediting the scriptural account of the origin of mankind, and the received notions of the age of the universe, given to the Chinese empire an immense antiquity, and a character of such high civilization and knowledge of the sciences and arts at that remote period, as to be utterly irreconcileable with the state and progress of man as described in the books of Moses. On the other hand, it is probable that the desire of invalidating those opinions has induced other writers of ability to go to an opposite extreme; to undervalue this singular people, and to give too little weight to any accounts which we have, either of the duration of their empire, the economy of their government and police, or of their attainments in the arts and sciences. Amidst this contrariety of sentiments, we shall endeavour to form such opinion as appears most consonant to the truth.

2. The panegyrists of the Chinese assert that their empire has subsisted above 4,000 years, without any material alteration in its laws, manners, language, or even fashion of dress; in evidence of which they appeal to a series of eclipses, marking contemporary events, all accurately calculated, for 2155 years be-

fore the birth of Christ. As it is easy to calculate eclipses backwards from the present day to any given period of time, it is thus possible to give to a history, fictitious from beginning to end, its chronology of real eclipses. This proof, therefore, amounts to nothing, unless it were likewise proved that all those eclipses were actually recorded at the time when they happened; but this neither has been nor can be done; for it is an allowed fact, that there are no regular historical records beyond the third century before the Christian era. The present Chinese are utterly ignorant of the motions of the celestial bodies, and cannot calculate eclipses. The series mentioned has therefore in all probability been calculated by some of the Jesuits, to ingratiate themselves with the emperors, and flatter the national vanity. The Jesuits have presided in the tribunal of mathematics for above 200 years.

3. But if the authentic annals of this empire go back even to the third century before Christ, and record at that time a high state of civilization, we must allow that the Chinese are an ancient and early polished people, and that they have possessed a singular constancy in their government, laws, and manners. Sir William Jones, no bigotted encomiast of this people, allows their great antiquity and early civilization, and, with much apparent probability, traces their origin from the Hindoos. He appeals to the ancient Sanscreet records, which mention a migration from India of certain of the military class termed *Chinas* to the countries east from Bengal. The stationary condition of the arts and sciences in China proves that these have not originated with that people; and many peculiarities of the manners, institutions, and popular religion of the Chinese, have a near affinity with those of the Hindoos.

4. The government of China is that of an absolute monarchy. The patriarchal system pervades the whole, and binds all the members of this vast empire in the strictest subordination. Every father

is absolute in his family, and may inflict any punishment short of death on his children. The mandarin of the district is absolute with the power of life and death over all its members; but a capital sentence cannot be inflicted without the emperor's approba tion. The emperor's power is absolute over all the mandarins, and every subject of the empire. To reconcile the people to this despotic authority, the sovereign alone is entitled to relieve the wants of the poor, and to compensate public calamities, as well as the misfortunes of individuals. He is therefore regarded as the father of his people, and even adored as a benevolent divinity.

5. Another circumstance which conciliates the people to their government is, that all honours in China are conferred according to merit, and that chiefly literary. The civil mandarins, who are the magistrates and judges, are appointed to office according to their measure of knowledge and mental endowments. No office or rank is hereditary, but may be aspired to by the meanest of the people. The penal laws of China are remarkably severe, but their execution may be remitted by the emperor. The judicial tribunals are regulated by a body of written laws of great antiquity, and founded on the basis of universal justice and equity. The emperor's opinion rarely differs from the sentences of those courts. One tribunal judges of the qualification of the mandarins; another regulates the morals of the people, and the national manners; a third is the tribunal of censors, which reviews the laws, the conduct of the magistrates and judges, and even that of the emperor himself. These tribunals are filled by an equal number of Chinese and Tartars.

6. It has been observed that the sciences have been stationary in this empire for many ages; and they are at this day extremely low, though far beyond the attainments of a barbarous people. The language of China seems to oppose the prosecution of speculative researches. It has no regular inflexions, and

can with difficulty express abstract ideas. We have remarked the ignorance of the Chinese in mathematics and astronomy Of physics they have no acquaintance beyond the knowledge of apparent facts. They never ascend to principles or form theories. Their knowledge of medicine is extremely limited, and is blended with the most contemptible superstition. Of anatomy, they know next to nothing; and in surgery they have never ventured to amputate a limb, or to reduce a fracture.

7. The state of the useful and elegant arts has been equally stationary as that of the sciences. They have attained many ages ago to a certain point of advancement, which they have never gone beyond. The Chinese are said to have manufactured glass for 2000 years, yet at this day it is inferior in transparency to the European, and it is not used in their windows. Gunpowder they are reported to have known from time immemorial, but they never employed it in artillery or fire-arms till taught by the Europeans. Printing they are said to have invented in the age of Julius Cæsar; yet they know not the use of moveable types, but print from blocks of wood. When first shewn the use of the compass in sailing, they affirmed that they were well acquainted with it, but found no occasion to employ it. The art of painting in China is mere mechanical imitation, without grace, expression, or even accuracy of proportions. Of the rules of perspective they have not the smallest idea. In sculpture, as in the figures of their idols, the Chinese artists seem to delight in distortion and deformity. Their music is not regulated by any principles of science; they have no semi-tones; and their instruments are imperfect and untunable. The Chinese architecture has variety, lightness, and sometimes elegance, but has no grandeur or symmetrical beauty.

8. Yet, in some of the arts, the Chinese have attained to great perfection. Agriculture is carried in China to the highest pitch of improvement. There

is not a spot of waste land in the whole empire, nor any which is not highly cultivated. The emperor himself is the chief of the husbandmen, and annually holds the plough with his own hands. Hence, and from the modes of economising food, is supported the astonishing population of 333,000,000, or 260 inhabitants to every square mile of the empire. The gardening of the Chinese, and their admirable embellishment of rural nature, have of late been the object of imitation in Europe, but with far inferior success. The manufacture of porcelain is an original invention of this people; and the Europeans, though excelling them in the form and ornament of the utensils, have never been able to attain to the excellence of the material.

9. The morals of the Chinese have furnished much subject both of encomium and censure. The books of Confucius are said to contain a most admirable system of morality; but the principles of morals have their foundation in human nature, and must, in theory, be every where the same. The moral virtues of a people are not to be estimated from the books of their philosophers. It is probable that the manners of the superior classes are in China, as elsewhere, much influenced by education and example. The morals of the lower classes are said to be beyond measure loose, and their practices most dishonest; nor are they regulated by any principle but selfish interest, or restrained but by the fear of punishment.

10. The religion of the Chinese is different in the different ranks of society. There is no religion of the state. The emperor and the higher mandarins profess the belief of one Supreme Being, *Changti*, whom they worship by prayer and thanksgiving, without any mixture of idolatrous practices. They respect the Lama of Thibet as the high-priest or prophet of this religion. A prevalent sect is that of *Tao-sse*, who believe in the power of magic, the agency of spirits, and the divining of future events.

A third is the sect of *Fo*, derived from India, whose priests are the Bonzes, and whose fundamental doctrine is, that all things rose out of nothing, and finally must return to it; that all animals are first to undergo a series of transmigrations; and that as man's chief happiness is to approach as near as possible to a state of annihilation in this life, absolute idleness is more laudable than occupation of any kind. A variety of hideous idols are worshipped by this sect.

11. The Chinese have their sacred books, termed *Kings;* as the *Yking*, *Chouking*, &c.: which, amidst some good moral precepts, contain much mystery, childish superstition, and absurdity. These are chiefly resorted to for the divining of future events, which seems the *ultimatum* of research among the Chinese philosophers. The observation of the heavenly bodies is made for that purpose alone: the changes of the weather, the performance or omission of certain ceremonies, the occurrence of certain events in particular times and places, are all believed to have their influence on futurity, and are therefore carefully observed and recorded; and the rules by which those omens are interpreted are said to have been prescribed by the great Confucius, the father of the Chinese philosophy, 500 years before the Christian era.

12. We conclude, on the whole, that the Chinese are a very remarkable people; that their government, laws, policy, and knowledge of the arts and sciences, exhibit unquestionable proofs of great antiquity and early civilization; but that the extraordinary measure of duration assigned to their empire by some modern writers rests on no solid proofs; nor are their government, laws, manners, arts, or scientific attainments, at all deserving of that superlative and most exaggerated encomium which has been bestowed on them.

L.

M. BAILLY'S THEORY OF THE ORIGIN OF THE SCIENCES AMONG THE NATIONS OF ASIA.

1. The striking resemblance in many points of character between the Chinese and ancient Egyptians has led to the conjecture, either that they were originally the same people, the one being a colony of the other, or that the two nations have had at some remote period such intercourse, either by conquest or in the way of commerce, as to occasion a reciprocal communication of manners, arts, and knowledge of the sciences. M. de Mairan has remarked the following points of similarity. The Egyptians and Chinese had the same permanence of manners, and abhorrence of innovations; they were alike remarkable for the respect entertained by children to their parents; they were equally averse to war; they had the same general but superficial knowledge in the arts and sciences, without the ability to make great attainments; they both, in the most ancient times, used hieroglyphics; the Egyptians had a solemn festival, called the *Feast of the Lights;* the Chinese have the *Feast of the Lanterns;* the features of the Chinese are said to resemble the ancient Egyptian statues; certain characters engraven on an Egyptian bust of Isis were found to belong to the Chinese language.

2. M. Bailly has taken a wider range of observations, and has, from a review of the manners, customs, opinions, and attainments of the Indians, Persians, Chinese, Chaldæans, and Egyptians, discovered many circumstances of similarity between all those nations equally remarkable as the foregoing. He has thence formed the singular hypothesis, that the knowledge common to the whole of those nations has been derived from the same original source,

namely, a most ancient and highly cultivated people of Asia, of whose memory every trace is now extinct, but who have been the parent instructors of all around them. If we find, says he, in the scattered huts of peasants, fragments interspersed of sculptured columns, we conclude for certain that these are not the work of the rude peasants who reared those huts, but that they are the remains of a magnificent building, the work of able architects, though we discover no other traces of the existence of that building, and cannot ascertain its precise situation.

3. The sciences and arts of the Chinese have been stationary for 2000 years. The people seem never to have availed themselves of the lights of their ancestors. They are like the inhabitants of a country recently discovered by a polished people, who have taught them some of their arts, and left their instruments among them. The knowledge they possess seems to have been imported, and not of original growth, for it has never been progressive.

4. The Chaldæans were an enlightened people at the commencement of the Babylonish empire, 2000 years before the Christian era.—They were great astronomers, and understood the revolutions of comets, which became known to the moderns only in the sixteenth century. The Chaldæans were probably the remains of this ancient people. The Bramins of India believe in the unity of God and the immortality of the soul, but with these sublime tenets they intermix the most childish absurdities. They derived the former from wise instructors, the latter were the fruit of their own ignorance. The Sanscreet, a most copious and elegant language, and the vehicle of all the Indian knowledge and philosophy, has been a dead tongue for thousands of years, and is intelligible only to a few of those Bramins. It was probably the language of that great ancient people.

5. The coincidence or similarity of customs concurs to establish the same idea. The custom of

libation was common to the Tartars and Chinese, as well as to the Greeks and Romans. All the Asiatic nations had festivals of the nature of the Roman *Saturnalia*. The tradition of the deluge is diffused among all those nations: the tradition of the giants attacking heaven is equally general. The doctrine of the metempsychosis was common to the Egyptians, Greeks, Indians, Persians, Tartarians, and Chinese. The religion of all these nations is founded on the profound, though erroneous, doctrine of the two principles, an universal soul pervading all nature, and inert matter on which it acts. A conformity in a true doctrine is no proof of mutual communication or concert; but it is ingeniously remarked, that a conformity in a false doctrine comes very near to such a proof.

6. The Egyptians, Chaldæans, Indians, Persians, and Chinese, all placed their temples fronting the east, to receive the first rays of the sun. The worship of the sun has been the religion of that ancient people. All the above-mentioned nations had a cycle, or period of sixty years, for regulating their chronology; they all divided the circle into 360 degrees, the zodiac into twelve signs, and the week into seven days; and the Chinese, Indians, and Egyptians, designed those days by the names of the planets ranged in the same order. The long measures of the ancient nations had all one common origin.

7. These singular coincidences, argues M. Bailly, can be accounted for only by three suppositions: 1. That there was a free communication between all those ancient nations: 2. That those circumstances of coincidence are so founded in human nature, that the most unconnected nations could not fail to hit upon them: or, 3. That they have been all derived from a common source. He rejects the two former suppositions, as contrary in his opinion to fact, and rests of course upon the last.

8. The precise situation of this great ancient peo-

ple, M. Bailly does not pretend to fix with certainty; but he offers probable reasons for conjecturing that it was about the 49th or 50th degree of north latitude, in the southern regions of Siberia. Many of the European and Asiatic nations attribute their origin to that quarter, which thence appears to have been extremely populous. Nitre, a production from animal substances, is more abundant there than in any other region. The observations of the rising of the stars, collected by Ptolemy, must have been made in a climate where the longest day was sixteen hours, which corresponds to the latitude mentioned. No European nation in that latitude understood astronomy in those early periods. The veneration of the Indians and Chinese for the Lama of Thibet is a proof that the religion of those nations originated in that quarter.

9. But does that region exhibit any traces of having been ever inhabited by a polished people? It is here that the theory of M. Bailly seems to be least supported by proof. He observes, that ancient mines have been discovered in those parts of Siberia, which have been wrought to great extent in a period beyond all record or tradition; that ancient sepulchres have been found, in which there were ornaments of gold of skilful workmanship; but the facts specified are so few as to warrant no positive inference.

10. This theory is an amusing specimen of the author's ingenuity; but it has not the force to draw our assent to his conclusions. We have noticed it, as specifying many curious facts relative to the manners and attainments of the ancient nations, and as furnishing strong evidence of the common origin of mankind. The nations above mentioned, though many of them remote from each other, were all connected, as links of a chain, by proximity; whence it is easy to conceive that knowledge should diverge from a centre to a very distant circumference. M. Bailly has given no reasonable grounds for fixing that centre in the position he has assigned it.

LI.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. OF SPAIN.—REVOLUTION OF THE NETHERLANDS, AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.

1. After a short survey of the Asiatic kingdoms, we return to the history of Europe in the sixteenth century.

In the time of Philip II., the successor of Charles V., the balance of power in Europe was sustained by Spain, France, England, and Germany, all at this time highly flourishing and respectable, either from the talents of their sovereigns, or their internal strength. Elizabeth, Henry IV. and Philip II. were all acute and able politicians, though the policy of the last partook more of selfish craft, and had less of the manly and heroic, than that of either of his rival monarchs. Philip was at this time sovereign of Spain, the two Sicilies, Milan, and the Netherlands. He had likewise, for a few years, the power of England at his command, by his marriage with Mary, the elder sister and predecessor of Elizabeth.

2. Pope Paul IV., jealous of the power of Philip, formed an alliance with Henry II. of France to deprive the Spaniards of Milan and the Sicilies. Philip, with the aid of the English, defeated the French at St. Quintin in Picardy, and hoped, from this signal victory, to force the allies into a peace; but the duke of Guise recovered the spirits of the French by the taking of Calais from the English, which they had now possessed for 200 years. Another great victory, however, obtained by Philip near Gravelines, brought on the treaty of Catteau-Cambresis in 1559, by which the French surrendered to Spain no less than eighty-nine fortified towns in the Low Countries and in Italy.

3. Philip, now at ease from foreign disturbances,

began to be disquieted on the score of religion. An intolerant bigot by nature, he resolved to extirpate every species of heresy from his dominions. The Netherlands, an assemblage of separate states, were all subject to Philip, under various titles; and he had conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, on William prince of Orange, a count of the German empire. The Lutheran and Calvinistic opinions had made great progress in those quarters; and Philip, determining to repress them, established the Inquisition with plenary powers, created new bishops, and prepared to abrogate the ancient laws, and give the provinces a new political institution. These innovations creating alarm and tumult, the duke of Alva was sent into Flanders to enforce implicit submission.

4. The Inquisition began its bloody work, and many of the principal nobility of the provinces were its victims. The minds of the people were completely alienated, and a chief was only wanting to give union to their measures. The prince of Orange, who was himself under sentence of the Inquisition, found no difficulty in raising an army, and having easily reduced some of the most important garrisons, the states of Holland and Zealand proclaimed him Stadtholder, and abjured the Roman faith (1570). Eighteen thousand persons perished by the hands of the executioner in the course of the duke of Alva's government, which was of five years' duration. His place was supplied by Requesens, a man of humanity, but bound to obey his inhuman master, who, on the death of Requesens, sent his brother Don John of Austria to endeavour to regain the revolted states; but the attempt was fruitless. The whole seventeen provinces had suffered alike from the tyranny of their sovereign, but particular jealousies prevented a general union, and only seven of these asserted their independence by a solemn treaty formed at Utrecht, 23d of January 1579; by which it was agreed that they should defend their liberties as one

united republic; that they should should jointly determine in matters of peace and war, establish a general legislative authority, and maintain a liberty of conscience in matters of religion. These seven United Provinces are, Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Overyssel, and Groningen. William prince of Orange was declared their chief magistrate, general, and admiral, by the title of *Stadtholder*.

5. Philip vented his indignation by a proscription of the prince of Orange, offering 25,000 crowns for his head, and he compassed his revenge, for this illustrious man was cut off by an assassin (1584). His son Maurice was elected stadtholder in his room, and sustained his important part with great courage and ability. With a slender aid from Elizabeth of England, who delighted to traverse the plans of Philip, this infant commonwealth accomplished and secured its independence, which it has maintained, till its subjugation in the time of Napoleon, the miserable fruit of faction and political disunion.

6. The other ten provinces, whose discontents were expressed only by murmur and complaint, were soothed by a new charter from Philip, confirming their privileges; while at the same time he took every possible measure to prevent any attempt on their part to throw off the yoke.

LII.

OF THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

1. The treaty of confederation of the seven United Provinces, framed in 1579, and solemnly renewed in 1583, is declared to be, by its nature, indissoluble. Each province thereby preserved its own laws, its magistrates, its sovereignty, and its

independence. They form, however, one body politic, having renounced the right of making separate alliances and treaties, and established a general council, with power of assembling the states and regulating the common affairs of the republic. The assembly of the States-General was originally held only twice a year, but became afterwards a perpetual council.

2. In all matters which regard not the general interest of the nation, each of the states or provinces is in itself a republic, governed by its own laws and magistrates, and possessing a supreme legislative authority. The deputies from each of the towns form the council of the province, in which is vested its separate government; and these deputies are regulated by the instructions of their constituents. The votes of the majority of deputies decide in the provincial council in all matters which regard not the general interest of the nation.

3. The great council of the States-General always met in assembly at the Hague, and is composed of the deputies from the seven provinces, of which Holland sends three, Zealand and Utrecht two, and the others one; each deputy being regulated by the council of his province. A majority of voices is here decisive, unless in the great questions of peace, war, and alliance, in which unanimity is requisite. The disadvantage of this constitution is the delay and difficulty in the execution of public measures. All the towns and all the nobles of a province must deliberate, and instruct their deputy, before the States-General can take the matter under consideration. This great defect is in some measure corrected by the power and influence of the stadtholder.

4. The stadtholder is commander-in-chief of the sea and land forces, and disposes of all the military employments. He presides over all the courts of justice, and has the power of pardoning crimes. He appoints the magistrates of the towns from a list made by themselves; receives and names ambassa-

dors, and is charged with the execution of the laws. He is supreme arbiter in all differences between the provinces, cities, or other members of the state.

5. William, the first stadtholder, did not abuse these high powers; nor did his successors, Maurice and Henry Frederick. But under William II. the states became jealous of an exorbitant authority in their chief magistrate, and on his death the office was for some time abolished. In that interval the republic was almost annihilated by the arms of Louis XIV.; and, sensible of their error, they restored the office of stadtholder in the person of William III. who retrieved the fortunes and honour of his country. In gratitude for his services, the dignity was made hereditary in his family, a solecism in the government of a republic. On the death of William without issue, the office was once more abolished for twenty years, when it was again restored, declared hereditary in the family of Orange, and descendible even to the issue of a daughter. The only restrictions are, that the succeeding prince shall be of the Protestant religion, and neither king nor elector of the German empire.

LIII.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. CONTINUED.

1 The loss of the Netherlands was in some degree compensated to Philip II. by the acquisition of the kingdom of Portugal. Muley Mahomet, king of Fez and Morocco, dethroned by his uncle Muley Moluc, solicited the aid of Don Sebastian king of Portugal to regain his throne. Sebastian landed with an army in Africa, but was defeated by the Moors, and slain; and the contending Moorish princes perished in the same engagement. Sebastian was succeeded by his grand-uncle Don Henry, a cardinal and archbishop, who died after a reign of

two years. The competitors for the crown were Don Antonio Prior of Crato, and Philip II., paternal and maternal uncles of the last sovereign; the duke of Savoy; Catharine de Medici, queen dowager of France; the duke of Parma; the duke of Braganza, married to the grand-daughter of king Emanuel, who by law had the best right to the crown; and even pope Gregory XIII. claimed the kingdom as a fief of the holy see. Don Antonio alone supported his claim by arms, but Philip defeated his rival in a decisive engagement at sea, and, without farther opposition, took possession of the throne of Portugal (1580).

2. Elizabeth of England had warmly espoused the cause of the revolted Netherlands, and her admiral Sir Francis Drake had taken some of the Spanish settlements in America. To avenge these injuries, the Invincible Armada of 150 ships of war, 27,000 men, and 3,000 pieces of cannon, was equipped by Philip for the invasion of England. The English fleet, of 108 ships, attacked them in the night, and burnt and destroyed a great part of the squadron: a storm, which drove them on the rocks and sands of Zealand, completed their discomfiture, and only fifty shattered vessels, with 6,000 men, returned to Spain (1588).

3. The restless spirit of Philip II. was engaged at the same time in the reduction of the Netherlands, the project for the invasion of England, and the dismembering the kingdom of France. The last scheme was as ineffectual as we have seen the two former. It was defeated at once by the conversion of Henry IV. to the Catholic religion. The policy of Philip had nothing in it great or generous. His restless ambition was fitted to embroil Europe, but he had not the judgment to turn the distresses he occasioned to his own advantage. In his own kingdoms, as in his domestic life, he was a gloomy and inhuman tyrant. Yet from the variety and magnitude of his designs, the power by which they were

supported, and the splendour of his dominion, the character of Spain was high and respectable in the scale of the nations of Europe. He died in the seventy-second year of his age, and forty-second of his reign (1598).

LIV.

STATE OF FRANCE IN THE END OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

UNDER HENRY II., FRANCIS II., CHARLES IX., HENRY III., AND HENRY IV.

1. The reformed religion had made the greater progress in France from the impolitic persecution it sustained from Henry II., the son and successor of Francis I., who, though he aided the Protestants of Germany in resisting the despotism of Charles V., shewed no mercy to their brethren in his own kingdom.

2. On the death of Henry II. the conspiracy of Amboise was planned by the prince of Condé, for the destruction of the duke of Guise, who ruled the kingdom under Francis II., and to whose intolerance and cruelty the Protestants attributed all their calamities. Guise owed his ascendancy chiefly to the marriage of his niece, Mary Queen of Scots, with the young monarch; and the detection of this conspiracy, the massacre of its principal leaders, and the barbarous punishment of all who partook in it, while they confirmed his power, served only to increase the rancour of the contending parties.

3. Francis II. died after a reign of a year (1560), and was succeeded by his brother Charles IX., a boy of ten years of age. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, who had no other principle but the love of power, was equally jealous of the influence of the Condés and the Guises. An ecclesiastical

assembly, held by her desire at Poissy, gave toleration to the Protestants to exercise their worship through all France, without the walls of the towns. The zeal or the imprudence of the duke of Guise infringed this ordinance, and both parties flew to arms. The admiral Coligni headed the troops of the Protestants, who were aided by 10,000 Germans from the Palatinate; and Philip of Spain, to increase the disorders, sent an army to the aid of the Catholics.

4. The horrors of civil war were aggravated by murders and assassinations. The duke of Guise was the victim of the frantic zeal of an enthusiast, and was assassinated while engaged in the siege of Orleans. His death was an irreparable loss to his party, and after many desperate engagements, with various success, a treacherous peace, intended only to lull the Protestants, was agreed to by the Catholics; and Coligni with the chiefs of the Protestant party were invited to court, and received by the queen-mother and her son with the most extraordinary marks of favour; among the rest Henry of Navarre, who had been placed at the head of the Protestants, to whom the young monarch had given his sister in marriage. Such were the preparatives to the infernal massacre of St. Bartholomew. On the night of the 23d of August 1572, at the ringing of the matin-bell, a general massacre was made by the Catholics of all the Protestants throughout the kingdom of France. Charles IX., a monster of cruelty, assisted himself in the murder of his own subjects.*

5. Amidst these horrors, Henry duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., was elected king of Poland, but had scarcely taken possession of his throne, when he was called to that of France by the death

* No rank or age was spared; 500 gentlemen, including Coligni, and 10,000 inferior persons, perished in Paris alone, and a like carnage took place in all the great towns in the kingdom, whither similar orders had been sent. It is computed that upwards of 60,000 persons were massacred.

of its execrable sovereign (1574). The weakness of the new monarch Henry III. was ill fitted to compose the disorders of the kingdom. Equally bigotted and profligate, he became the scorn of his subjects, and the dupe of the contending factions.

6. The Protestant party was now supported by the prince of Condé and young Henry of Navarre, descended from Robert of Bourbon, a younger son of Lewis IX. The duke of Alençon, the king's brother, had likewise joined their party. The Catholics, to accumulate their strength, formed a bond of union, termed the *League*, nominally for defence of the state and its religion, but in reality for usurping all the powers of government and suppressing the Protestant faith. Of this dangerous association Henry III., with the weakest policy, declared himself the head, and thus the avowed enemy of one half of his subjects. He saw his error when too late; and dreading the designs of the duke of Guise, and his brother the cardinal of Lorraine, whose authority had superseded his own, he basely rid himself of his fears by procuring their assassination. This vicious and contemptible tyrant, after a reign of fifteen years, was himself assassinated by Jacques Clement, a Jacobin monk, from the frenzy of fanaticism (1589), and with him ended the line of Valois.

7. The next heir of the crown was Henry of Navarre, who had been educated a Protestant by his mother, the daughter of Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre. At the age of sixteen he had been declared head of the party of the Huguenots; his uncle the prince of Condé and the admiral Coligni acting as his lieutenants. His first military enterprises were unsuccessful. Invited to Paris, at the peace of 1572, to marry the sister of Charles IX., he narrowly escaped from the massacre of St. Bartholomew, but remained three years a prisoner. On the death of Charles, he again took the field against the army of the League, which he defeated in the battle of Coutras (1587), and still more signally in that of Arques

(1589). After the death of Henry III., he won the celebrated battle of Ivry; and being acknowledged sovereign of France by all but the party of the League, then in possession of Paris, he laid siege to the city, which must have capitulated, but for the succours of Philip II., under the duke of Parma. Religion was the sole cause of the disunion of France, and the only obstacle to the acknowledgment of Henry's title by the greatest part of his subjects. At the earnest persuasion of Rosni (duke of Sully), himself a Protestant, Henry was prevailed on to declare himself a Catholic. He abjured at St. Denis, and was crowned king at Chartres (1594). He soon after took possession of Paris; but it cost him several years, both of war and negotiation, before he gained the whole of his kingdom, exhausted as it was and ruined by civil discord.

8. The subsequent life of this excellent prince was devoted to the reparation of these misfortunes. After forcing Philip II. to conclude the advantageous peace of Vervins (1598), his whole attention was bestowed on the improvement of his kingdom, by reforming its laws, regulating its finances, encouraging agriculture and manufactures, enlarging and embellishing the cities, and finally by successfully reconciling the partisans of the contending religions. In all his beneficial schemes, he found an able assistant in his minister the duke of Sully, who has beautifully depicted the life and character of his master. It is in his memoirs that we see not only the great designs, but the private virtues, the engaging and amiable manners, of this illustrious man, who, while he was the arbiter of the contending powers of Europe, was the indulgent father of a happy people.

9. The period of the splendour and happiness of France was of short duration. Henry IV., worthy to be immortal, was assassinated at the age of fifty-seven, 4th May 1610, by Ravaillac, an insane fanatic. He meditated, at the time of his death, the great

project of a perpetual peace between the states of Europe; a design highly characteristic of the benevolent mind of its author, but which the weakness of mankind, and the impossibility of reasoning with nations as with wise individuals, must for certain have rendered abortive.

LV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND OF SCOTLAND IN THE REIGNS OF ELIZABETH, AND MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

1. Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anna Bullen, succeeded to the throne on the death of her sister Mary (1558); and England attained to a high degree of splendour under the rule of this great and politic princess, whose talents enabled her to pursue the true interests of her people, while her vigorous and intrepid mind led her to take an important part in maintaining the balance of power in Europe. While she encouraged at home every useful art and manufacture, she colonized a great part of North America, supported the infant republic of Holland against its tyrannical enemy, humbled the pride of Spain in the defeat of its Invincible Armada, and assisted Henry IV. in the recovery of his kingdom. It was her fortune to have the aid of the most able ministers, and her merit to place her confidence in their counsels.

2. Had Elizabeth been equally endowed with the virtues of the heart as with the powers of the mind, she would have shone the most illustrious character in the annals of modern Europe. Her conduct to her cousin Mary queen of Scots has fixed an indelible stain on her character. Mary, the daughter of James V. and great grand-daughter of Henry VII. educated in France, and married, when very young, to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II., had impru-

dently assumed the arms and title of queen of England, by the persuasion of her maternal uncles the Guises. The pretence was the illegitimacy of Elizabeth, declared by Henry VIII. on his divorce from Anna Bullen. This false step laid the foundation of all the miseries of the queen of Scots.

3. The Reformation was at this time going forward in Scotland with the most ardent zeal. The earls of Argyle, Morton, Glencairn, and others, its chief promoters, had, by their own authority, suppressed the worship of the mass over a great part of the kingdom. The Catholic bishops, by an ill-judged persecution of the reformers, greatly increased the number of their proselytes. They began to muster their strength; and headed by John Knox, a disciple of Calvin, a virtuous man, but of the most furious and intemperate zeal, threw down the altars and images, expelled the priests, and demolished the churches and monasteries. Acting now in arms, and in open defiance of government, the queen-mother, Mary of Guise, attempted, by the aid of French troops, to reduce her Protestant subjects to submission; and these applied for aid to the Protestant queen of England. Elizabeth sent an army and a fleet to their assistance. The death of the queen-mother was followed by a capitulation, by which it was agreed that the French should evacuate Scotland, and that Mary should renounce all pretension to the crown of England. The Protestant religion under Presbyterian forms, was now established in the room of the Catholic.

4. In this situation of Scotland, Mary, at the age of eighteen, on the death of her mother, and of her husband Francis II., returned to her hereditary kingdom; having fortunately escaped an English fleet which Elizabeth had despatched to take her prisoner on her passage. Her misfortunes began from that hour. Her Protestant subjects regarded their Catholic queen with abhorrence, and looked up to her enemy Elizabeth as their support and defender.

That artful princess had secured to her interest the very men on whom the unsuspecting Mary placed her utmost confidence, her bastard brother the earl of Murray, the earl of Morton, and secretary Lethington. The views of Murray aimed at nothing less than his sister's crown, and the obstacles which opposed his criminal ambition served only to render his attempts more daring and more flagitious.

5. The marriage of Mary with her cousin lord Darnley, son of the earl of Lennox, who stood in the same relation to Elizabeth, was not relished by that princess. Encouraged by her ministers, Randolph and Cecil, Murray formed a conspiracy to seize and imprison the queen, and put to death her husband, and usurp the government; and on the detection of his designs, attempted to support them by open rebellion. Defeated, exiled, pardoned, and loaded with benefits by his injured sovereign, he persevered in the same atrocious purposes, till he at length accomplished them.

6. The spouse of Mary had incurred her resentment by his vices and his follies. Taking advantage of the weakness of his mind, Murray, Morton, and Lethington, had rendered him jealous of the partiality of Mary for her foreign secretary, the aged Rizzio, and engaged him in the barbarous act of murdering this ill-fated wretch at the feet of the queen, to whose garments he clung for protection. The purpose of this shocking outrage was to procure the abortion of Mary, then big with child, and possibly her death; or, should she survive, to alienate completely her affections from her husband, and thus to render her suspected of the design they had projected of cutting him off by assassination. In the latter purpose they succeeded. The house which Darnley inhabited was blown up by gunpowder; his body was found strangled near the place, and the report immediately prevailed that Mary had been accessory to his murder.

7. A most imprudent step, to which she was con-

ducted by the same band of traitors, gave countenance to this suspicion. At the earnest recommendation of Morton and some of her chief nobility, she married the earl of Bothwell, a man openly stigmatized as one of the murderers of her husband. He had, it is true, been absolved on trial for that crime, and had by force made himself master of her person. The plans of Murray and his associates, successful to the utmost of their wishes, were now ripe for consummation. On the pretext of the queen's guilt of murder and adultery, she was confined by Murray in the castle of Lochleven, and there compelled to resign her crown into the hands of her unnatural brother, who was to govern the kingdom as regent during the minority of her infant son, now proclaimed king by the title of James VI. (1567). Bothwell escaped beyond seas, and died in Denmark.

8. A great part of the nation reprobated these infamous proceedings. Mary escaped from her confinement; and at the head of an army gave battle to the rebels at Langside; but, being defeated, she fled for shelter to the north of England. Elizabeth, who had secretly taken part in all the machinations of her enemies, had now gained a great object of her ambition: she had in her hands a hated rival, and by her support of Murray and his party, the absolute command of the kingdom of Scotland. Yet policy required some show of friendship and humanity to the queen of Scots, who claimed as a suppliant her protection and aid. She professed her desire to do her justice, but first required that she should clear herself of the crimes alleged against her. To this Mary agreed, in the intrepidity of conscious innocence. In a conference held for that purpose, Murray openly stood forth as the accuser of his sister and queen, appealing to certain letters said to be written by her to Bothwell, plainly intimating her guilt. Copies of these letters were produced. Mary demanded the originals, boldly declaring them

to be the forgeries of her enemies; but they were never produced. She retorted on Murray and Morton the charge of Darnley's murder; and the conference was broken off at the command of the queen of England, who detained Mary in close imprisonment.

9. The ungenerous policy of Elizabeth was condemned by her own subjects. The duke of Norfolk, the first of her nobility, and, though a Protestant, favoured by the Catholic party in England, secretly projected to marry the queen of Scots; and the discovery of these views giving alarm to Elizabeth, brought that ill-fated nobleman to the block, and hastened the doom of the unfortunate Mary. Worn out with the miseries of her confinement, she privately solicited the aid of foreign princes for her deliverance. Her cause was espoused by all the Catholics of England; and some of the most intemperate of these had formed a plot to deliver her from captivity, and to place her on the throne by the murder of Elizabeth. This dangerous conspiracy was discovered, and its authors deservedly suffered death. The schemes of Mary for her own deliverance were held presumptive of her acquiescence in the whole of the plot. Though an independent sovereign, she was brought to trial before a foreign tribunal, which had already decreed her fate; and being condemned to suffer death, she was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle (1587), in the forty-fifth year of her age, and nineteenth of her captivity in England. Previously to this event, Murray had fallen the victim of the private revenge of a gentleman whom he had injured, and Lethington poisoned himself in prison, to escape the sentence of his enemies; Morton, for some time regent of the kingdom, was afterwards tried and suffered death for his concern in the murder of Darnley.

10. We have noticed the formidable preparations of Philip II. for the invasion of England, and their disastrous issue in the total destruction of the In-

vincible Armada. The English, in their turn, made descents on the Spanish coasts; and the glory of the nation was nobly sustained by those great admirals, Raleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendish, and Hawkins. The earl of Essex distinguished himself in those expeditions, and won the favour of Elizabeth, both by his prowess and personal accomplishments. The death of Leicester, her former favourite, and of her minister Burleigh, left Essex unrivalled in her affections, and of chief authority in the direction of her councils. Haughty and impatient of control, he disgusted the nobles; and his failure in quelling a rebellion in Ireland, gave them ground to undermine him in the favour of his sovereign. In the madness of inordinate ambition, he proposed to possess himself of the person of the queen, and compel her to remove his enemies, and acquiesce in all his measures. This treasonable enterprise brought him to the scaffold (1600).

11. From that time Elizabeth fell into profound melancholy, and soon after died, in the seventieth year of her age, and forty-fifth of her reign (1603), having named for her successor James VI. king of Scotland. Her talents were great, and the firmness of her mind unequalled; yet her private character was tarnished by cruelty, hypocrisy, and an insatiable desire of admiration. Her maxims of government were despotic, and she had little regard for the liberties of her people, or the privileges of her parliaments, to whom she never allowed the liberty of disputing her commands. The actual government of England in those days was little different from an absolute monarchy.

LVI.

HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE REIGNS OF JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

1. James VI. of Scotland succeeded by hereditary right to the throne of England, thus uniting the two crowns; a prince of considerable learning and talents, but of little vigour of mind or political energy. He became unpopular from his notions of an uncontrollable prerogative, to which unwisely proclaiming his title, he provoked his subjects to question it. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the subject, and retrenchment of the powers of the crown; and during this reign, the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance on the part of the people, which was destined in the next to overturn the constitution.

2. Domestic events were such as chiefly distinguished the reign of James I. A conspiracy was discovered in 1603 for subverting the government, and placing the king's cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne, in which the lords Cobham and Grey, and Sir Walter Raleigh, were principally concerned. The two former were pardoned, and Raleigh condemned, but reprieved; when, on the ground of his infringement of the peace with Spain, by unwarrantably attacking one of her American settlements, he was, after an interval of fifteen years, beheaded on his former sentence.

3. Another conspiracy followed of a still more dangerous nature, the gunpowder treason; a plot of the Catholics to destroy at one blow the king and the whole body of the parliament (1604). It was discovered, from a circumstance of private friendship, on the very eve of its accomplishment; and the principal conspirators suffered a capital punishment. The public indignation now raged against

the Catholics; and the humanity of James, which sought to mitigate this fury, was as ungenerously as absurdly construed into a favour which he entertained for their religious principles.

4. It was a peculiar weakness of the king to attach himself to undeserving favourites. Such was Carre earl of Somerset, who had no other recommendation than a handsome person, and who, after several years' exercise of all the insolence of power, fell into disgrace, on conviction of his concern in an infamous murder. His place was supplied by Villiers, afterwards duke of Buckingham, a man devoid of every talent of a minister, and odious to all ranks of the state. He planned a journey of Charles prince of Wales into Spain to court the Infanta, and by his folly and insolence frustrated the treaty on the brink of its conclusion.

5. Elizabeth, the daughter of James, was married to the Protestant Elector Palatine, who was dispossessed of his electorate by the emperor Ferdinand III., for imprudently accepting the crown of Bohemia, till then an appanage of the empire. James was urged by parliament to a war in defence of his son-in-law, which touched the nation both as a point of honour, and as the cause of the Protestant interest. He sent a feeble armament, which was of no service; the only military enterprise of his reign. His favourite project was a complete union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland; a measure which, however beneficial, the mutual prejudices of the two nations were as yet too violent to bear. As a preparatory step, the Episcopal hierarchy was introduced into Scotland; but this served only as the food of future commotions. James I. died 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign over England.

6. On an impartial estimate of the character of the succeeding monarch, Charles I., it may be allowed, that had the nation in his reign entertained the same ideas of the regal prerogative, of the

powers of parliament, and of the liberty of the subject, that had prevailed for the two preceding centuries, this unfortunate prince would have reigned with high popularity. But it was his lot to mount the throne at that critical period when the public opinion had undergone an entire revolution on those topics; and, with many excellent endowments both of head and heart, he wanted that political prudence which should have taught him to yield to the necessity of the times.

7. Charles quarrelled with his first parliament on their refusal of adequate supplies for the war in support of his brother-in-law the Elector Palatine. Engaged to his allies, the king, dissolving the parliament, issued warrants for borrowing money of the subject. A new parliament was found equally uncomplying, and evinced its jealousy of the king by the impeachment of his minister, Buckingham; Charles avenging the insult by imprisoning two members of the House of Commons. A quarrel thus began received continual addition from new causes of offence. The levying money from the subject was enforced by billeting soldiers on those who refused to lend to the crown; and some were even imprisoned on that account. A war was undertaken against France by Buckingham's instigation, a sufficient cause of its unpopularity; and it ended in a fruitless attempt on Rochelle. The king again dissolved his parliament (1626).

8. A new parliament exhibited a spirit of determined reformation. A *Petition of Right* was passed by both houses, which declared the illegality of raising money without their sanction, or enforcing loans from the subject, annulled all taxes imposed without consent of parliament, and abolished the exercise of the martial law; and Charles was obliged, with much reluctance, to give his assent to this great retrenchment of prerogatives, sanctioned by the usage of the most popular of his predecessors.

9. The taxes of tonnage and poundage had usu-

ally been continued from one reign to another. On this ground the king conceived he was warranted to levy them without a new grant; and a member of the House of Commons was imprisoned on refusal to pay them. This arbitrary measure excited an outrageous ferment in that assembly, and the consequence was a new dissolution of parliament (1629).

10. It was now a measure of necessity to make peace with France and Spain. The king persevered in levying the tonnage, poundage, and ship-money, and high fines were imposed for various offences, without trial, by authority of the Star-chamber. The legality of the tax of ship-money was disputed by John Hampden; but he was condemned by the Court of Exchequer, contrary, as was generally thought, to justice and the laws of the realm.

11. These discontents were increased by religious enthusiasm. Charles, by the advice of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, had relaxed the penalties against Catholics, and countenanced some innovations in the ceremonials of church worship, preludes, as they were termed, to the popish idolatries. He had likewise imprudently attempted to introduce the liturgy of the church of England among the Scots; measures which excited in the latter country the most general discontent, and produced the most violent commotions. A bond, termed the *National Covenant*, containing an oath of resistance to all religious innovations, was subscribed in Scotland by all ranks and conditions; and in a General Assembly at Glasgow, the Episcopal hierarchy was solemnly abolished (1638). To maintain this violent procedure, the Scots reformers took up arms; and, after seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, boldly marched into the heart of England.

12. It was now absolutely necessary to assemble a parliament; and the king at length saw that the torrent was irresistible, and resolved, though too

late, to give it way. A bill passed for abolishing the tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament, received the royal assent. Monopolies of every kind were abolished. A parliament was agreed to be summoned every third year. Unsatisfied with these concessions, the Commons impeached the earl of Strafford, the king's first minister, of high treason, together with Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who were charged, as the chief counsellors of the crown, with a design of subverting the laws and constitution of the realm. The fate of Strafford, whose trial by his peers would have terminated in his acquittal, was secured by a bill of attainder, to which the king was, with the greatest reluctance, forced to give his assent. The Commons seized that moment of anguish to obtain his consent to a decisive measure, a bill which rendered the parliament perpetual, by declaring that it should not be dissolved or adjourned but by its own decree (1641). Strafford and Laud were both beheaded.

13. This last measure of the Commons evinced a determined purpose to overturn the constitution. Their proceedings hitherto had the show of justice, and most of them might be vindicated on the principles of true patriotism. But from this period their conduct was treason to their country and its government.—The last bill destroyed the equal balance of the constitution of England, and every subsequent measure was a step towards its entire annihilation.

14. The Irish Catholics took advantage of these disorders, and, with the purpose of assuming the entire command of that kingdom, and shaking off its dependence on England, attempted, in one day, to massacre all the Protestants in Ireland.* To extinguish this horrible rebellion, Charles consigned to the parliament the charge of the war, which they

* About 40,000 Protestants are supposed to have been murdered at this period. No age, no sex, no condition, was spared.

interpreted into a transference to them of the whole military powers of the crown. Under this authority a great force was levied, and supplied with arms from the royal magazines.

15. The bishops having complained that their lives were in danger from the populace, withdrew from the House of Peers, and protested against the proceedings that should take place in their absence. They were impeached of treason by the Commons, and committed to the tower. These proceedings shewed the design either to overturn the throne, or reduce the regal power to a mere phantom. The patience of Charles was therefore exhausted. He caused five of the Commons to be impeached, and went in person to the house to seize them; a breach of the privilege of parliament, for which he found it necessary to atone by a humiliating message.

16. A new bill of the Commons, naming the commanders of all the fortified places, who should be responsible to parliament alone, was understood to be a declaration of war. The next step was to assume the whole legislative power, by declaring it a breach of privilege to dispute the law of the land declared by the Lords and Commons. But the former were mere name, being entirely under the control of the latter.

17. The sword was now to decide the contest. The royal cause was supported by a great proportion of the landed interest, all the friends of the established church, and all the Catholics in the kingdom. On the side of the parliament were the city of London and most of the greater towns, with all the dissenters and sectaries. The first campaign was favourable to the royalists. They defeated the parliamentary forces at Worcester and Edgehill, but lost the battle of Newbury.

18 The parliament now entered into a strict confederacy with the Scots, both in the articles of politics and religion; and the *Solemn League and Covenant*, a new bond more specific in its objects than

the former, and more treasonable in its purpose, was framed at Edinburgh, for the purification of both churches, the reformation of both kingdoms, the maintenance of the privileges of king and parliament, and the bringing to justice all malignants. In consequence of this confederacy, 20,000 Scots took the field to co-operate with the forces of the parliament.

19. Oliver Cromwell commanded at this time a regiment of horse under Fairfax, general of the parliament, but in reality directed all the measures of the army. In Scotland the royal cause was gallantly sustained by the marquis of Montrose; but all was lost in England by the defeat at Naseby (1645). The king's troops being entirely dispersed, he threw himself into the hands of the Scots, who basely delivered him up to the commissioners of parliament, from whom he was taken by Cromwell's orders, and conducted to the army, now the masters of the kingdom. Cromwell, entering London, assumed an absolute control over the parliament, and imprisoned all who disputed his authority. Charles, escaping from his confinement, fled to the Isle of Wight, but was there detained a prisoner in Carisbrook Castle.

20. The parliament, suffering under this military usurpation, were now sincerely desirous of terminating a miserable anarchy by a treaty with the king, and, after a long negotiation, all terms were finally adjusted. Charles agreed to resign to parliament the military power, the disposal of all the offices of state, and the right of creating peers without their consent; he agreed to abolish the episcopal hierarchy, and to establish the Presbyterian discipline; and these concessions the parliament accepted by a majority of suffrages, and declared to be a sufficient basis for the settlement of the kingdom. Cromwell instantly surrounded the House of Commons, and excluding all but his own partisans (about sixty in number), a second vote was passed, rescinding the

former, and declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament. A court of justice was then appointed to try the king for this act of treason. The House of Lords having unanimously rejected this decree, were immediately voted, by this junto of independents, to be an useless branch of the constitution.

21. Charles was brought to trial; and, refusing to acknowledge the authority of his judges, was condemned to suffer death. He was beheaded on the 30th of January 1649. The arbitrary proceedings of this monarch in the beginning of his reign were certainly sufficient to justify that resistance on the part of the people which at length produced its effect, in confining the regal authority within its just bounds, and securing the rational liberties of the subject. But from the period that this end was attained, resistance ceased to be lawful. Its farther operations were criminal in the extreme. The subsequent usurpations of the Commons can no more be justified on any constitutional principle, than the murder of the king can be defended on the score of legality, justice, or humanity.

LVII.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

1. The parliament of Scotland had taken no part in these latter scenes, and had formally protested against the trial of the king. On his death they proclaimed Charles II. their sovereign, but on the express condition of his signing the Covenant, and ratifying their confession of faith. Ireland recognised him without any conditions. The heroic marquis of Montrose landed in the north of Scotland with a few foreign troops, and attempted to reduce the party of the Covenanters, and establish the legal authority of the king, independent of the servile

restrictions with which they had fettered it; but, attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and betrayed into the hands of his enemies, who put him to death by the hands of the executioner (1650); displaying in the circumstances of his punishment all the insolence of cruelty which distinguishes revenge in the meanest of souls. Charles betook himself to Scotland, and was obliged, however reluctantly, to acquiesce in all the terms that were imposed on him.

2. Cromwell, with 16,000 men, marched into Scotland against the now royalist Covenanters, whom he defeated in the battle of Dunbar; and then following the royal army, which retreated into England, he cut them to pieces in the decisive battle of Worcester, September 3, 1651. Charles fled in disguise through the western and southern counties, till he found an opportunity of escaping to France. Cromwell returned in triumph to London.

3. The republican parliament formed and executed great designs. A war with Holland was most ably maintained on both sides by those great naval commanders, Blake, Van Tromp, and de Ruyter; but the advantage was greatly in favour of the English, who took above 1,600 of the Dutch ships. The parliament, proud of these successes, justly conceived that while the nation was thus powerful at sea, the land army was an unnecessary burden, and determined to reduce it. To prevent this measure, Cromwell framed a remonstrance of the army, demanding the election of a new parliament; and this meeting with no regard, he entered the House of Commons, which he had surrounded with his troops, and, declaring the parliament dissolved by his authority, forcibly turned the members out of doors. The republic of England, which had subsisted four years and three months, was thus annihilated, in one moment, April 20, 1653.

4. It was necessary, however, that there should be the appearance of a parliament. A few mean persons, of fanatical character, were chosen by

Cromwell's partisans, from the different counties of England, with five from Scotland, and six from Ireland, to hold their functions for fifteen months. This assembly, termed *Barebone's Parliament*, from its leading member, a leather-seller, became the scorn of the public, and was dissolved by its own vote, after five months.

5. The government was now vested in the Council of Officers, who nominated Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector of the three kingdoms, invested him with the power of making peace, war, and alliance, and authorised a standing army of 30,000 men to be kept up for the support of government. His administration was despotic, vigorous, and spirited. He maintained the honour of the nation in the war with the Dutch, compelling them to yield the honour of the flag, and to compensate to the India Company all its losses. He was successful likewise in his negotiations with France and Spain. But in his domestic government he was traversed by his parliaments, whom it cost him a continual struggle, and even violence, to keep in order. One parliament, properly prepared, voted him the regal title, which, by the counsel of his best friends, he was forced most unwillingly to refuse. In recompense of this self-denial, the parliament confirmed his title of Protector, with a fixed revenue, and decreed his right of appointing a successor. He was king in all but the name.

6. By consent of parliament, Cromwell appointed a House of Lords; but all the ancient peers declined the proffered honour. He was forced to choose them from the Commons; and thus he lost the majority in the Lower House. His temper soured with disappointment, a prey to chagrin, and in continual fear of assassination, he fell at length into a mortal disease, and died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, 3d September 1658.

7. Richard Cromwell, son of Oliver, succeeded by his father's appointment, to the Protectorate; a

man of weak understanding and facile temper, utterly unfit for his hazardous situation, which accordingly he maintained only for a few months, resigning his office on the 22d April 1659. His brother Henry, viceroy of Ireland, immediately followed his example; and the family of the Cromwells, which the talents of one man had elevated above the sovereigns of their country, returned once more to its original obscurity.

8. The remains of that nominal parliament which had put the king to death, termed, in derision, the *Rump*, was now dissolved by the Council of Officers. Of these every aspiring individual had his own separate views of ambition. Intrigue, cabal, and anarchy, were universal; and the nation, looking forward with horror to a series of calamities, began earnestly to desire the restitution of its ancient government. George Monk, commander of the army in Scotland, judged these symptoms favourable for restoring the exiled monarch to the throne of his ancestors. Marching his army into England, he declared his resolution to bring about the election of a free parliament, which all men knew to be synonymous with the restoration of the king. It was of course violently opposed by the republican party, who even attempted to excite a new civil war; but they were forced at length to acquiesce in the measure. A free parliament was assembled; and a message being presented from Charles, offering a full indemnity, complete liberty of conscience, and payment to the army of all arrears, it was received with transports of joy, and Charles II. proclaimed king, 29th May 1660.

LVIII.

THE REIGNS OF CHARLES II. AND JAMES II.

1. The nation, without imposing any terms on their new sovereign, trusted implicitly to his good dispositions. These were humane and complacent; but the character of Charles, indolent, luxurious, and prodigal, was neither fitted to support the national honour abroad, nor to command obedience and respect to his domestic government. The sale of Dunkirk was a measure offensive to the pride of the nation. A war with Holland, supported at a vast expense, and maintained in many desperate but indecisive engagements, was attended finally with no material benefit. By the treaty of Breda, concluded in 1667, New York was secured to the English, the isle of Polerone to the Dutch, and Acadia in North America to the French.

2. The sale of Dunkirk, and the unsuccessful issue of the war, attributed to the counsel of the earl of Clarendon, procured the disgrace and banishment of that illustrious man (1667). The peace was scarcely concluded with Holland, when England joined with her and Sweden in a triple alliance, to oppose the progress of the arms of Lewis XIV. in the Low Countries; and that object being attained, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668, the French monarch gained the English over to his interest in a new war against the Dutch, which brought their republic to the brink of destruction.

3. The domestic administration of Charles was embroiled from various causes, originating in the personal character and dispositions of the sovereign. He trusted to profligate and worthless counsellors. His arbitrary notions of government, and the partiality he shewed to the Catholics, gave perpetual alarm and uneasiness to a great proportion of his

subjects. Complaints resounded from every quarter; and the parliament required a test oath, abjuring popery, from all persons in public employment. On refusal to take this oath, the king's brother, James duke of York, was deprived of his office of high admiral.

4. Titus Oates, a worthless impostor, pretended to have discovered a plot of the Catholics for assassinating the king, burning London, massacring the Protestants, and placing the duke of York on the throne. Another villain, named Bedloe, joined his evidence to that of Oates; and on their perjured testimony, afterwards fully exposed, a few miserable priests suffered death. A new test was imposed, which excluded all papists from both houses of parliament. The treasurer Danby was impeached for advising the last peace with France, though it was proved that he had acted by his sovereign's orders; and a bill passed the House of Commons, excluding the duke of York from the succession to the crown. A more important bill for the general liberty, the act of *Habeas Corpus*, was the work of the same session of parliament. (See Sect. LIX. § 14.)

5. The distinguishing epithets of Whig and Tory were now first known; the former, the opposers of the crown, against the latter, its partisans; and each party, as in all factions, carried its principles to an extreme. The Whigs, predominant in the next parliament, raged with fury against the Catholics, and insisted on the king's assent to the bill for the exclusion of his brother. He had no other expedient but to dissolve them, but found their successors equally violent. After various fruitless attempts to conciliate their favour to his measures, a dissolution ensued of this parliament, the last which Charles assembled

6. But the great cause of dissatisfaction remained. The duke of York was at the bottom of all the measures of government. A conspiracy was formed by Shaftesbury, Russel, Sidney, and the duke of

Monmouth, natural son of the king, on the pretence of vindicating the national liberties. It was discovered by one of the associates, and Russel and Sidney suffered a capital punishment. The detection of this conspiracy strengthened the authority of the sovereign. The duke of York was restored to his office of high admiral, and tacitly acknowledged as the successor to the crown. Charles II. died 6th of February 1685, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th year of his reign.

7. The duke of York succeeded to the throne by the title of James II. His reign was short and inglorious. He was the instrument of his own misfortunes, and ran headlong to destruction. The Catholics at this time were not the hundredth part of the nation, yet James was weak enough to make the desperate attempt of substituting the popish faith in room of the Protestant. Discarding the nobility from his councils, he was directed solely by Romish priests; and in the very outset of his reign expressed his contempt of the authority of parliament, and a firm purpose to exercise an unlimited despotism.

8. The duke of Monmouth having excited a new rebellion, was defeated, made prisoner, and beheaded; and the most inhuman rigour was shewn in the punishment of all his partisans. The parliament was in general submissive to the king's will, which for a while met with no opposition or control. A declaration was published, establishing full liberty of conscience in matters of religion; and several bishops, who refused to publish it in their dioceses, were committed to prison. A Catholic president was appointed to one of the colleges of Oxford. An ambassador was sent to the pope, and a papal nuncio received in London. The Catholics openly boasted that theirs would soon be the religion of the state.

9. James had three children: Mary, the wife of the stadtholder William prince of Orange: Anne, married to prince George of Denmark; and James, an infant. The stadtholder had looked on his right

to the crown of England as certain before the birth of this infant, and, after that event, projected still to gain it by arms or intrigue; the infatuation of the king and the general discontent of the people giving him the most flattering invitation. James himself was informed of these views of his son-in-law, but would give them no credit, till actually apprized of his landing with an army, 15th of November 1688.

10. The principal nobility and officers immediately joined the standard of the prince of Orange; and James was at once abandoned by his people, his ministers, his favourites, and his own children. Leaving London in disguise, he was discovered and brought back by the populace; but the prince of Orange wisely favouring his escape, he found means a few days after to convey himself to France.

11. The throne being declared vacant, it was proposed in a convention-parliament, that the crown should be settled on the princess Mary, and her issue, her husband governing as regent; whom failing, on the princess Anne. The stadtholder declining the office of regent, it was finally resolved to confer the crown on the prince and princess of Orange, the former to have the sole administration of the government.

12. To this settlement was added a declaration fixing the rights of the subject and the royal prerogative. Of this the most important articles are the following: The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution; he cannot levy money without consent of parliament: The subjects have right to petition the crown: A standing army cannot be kept up in time of peace but by consent of parliament: Elections and parliamentary debate must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled, &c. Such was the final settlement of the British government at the great era of the Revolution. At this period, when the constitution of the country became fixed and determined, we finish the sketch of the history of our own country.

LIX.

ON THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

1. The rudiments of the constitution of England may be traced as far back as the Norman conquest. William distributed a great proportion of the lands among his Norman followers, subjecting these, as well as the Anglo-Saxons who retained their property, to the feudal tenures, and thus extinguishing at once the ancient liberties of the people.—England was divided into 60,215 military fiefs, all held of the crown, under the obligation of the vassal's taking arms for his sovereign whenever required. In the continental kingdoms of Europe, as in France, the feudal system arose by slow degrees, nor was there of consequence the same union of the fabric as in England. The feudal lords were independent of each other, ever at variance from their mutual pretensions, and often owing but a very slender allegiance to the crown. Their vassals suffered from oppression, and often struggled for their freedom; but these efforts being partial produced no consequence favourable to the liberty of the nation. In England all were oppressed by the enormous weight of the crown; it was a common grievance, and produced at times a violent effort for the general liberties of the people.

2. The forest-laws imposed by the conqueror (see Sect. XV. § 2, 11) were a grievance felt by the whole nation, as rendering every man's property precarious, and subject to the arbitrary encroachments of the crown. It was no wonder that the barons and their vassals should cordially unite to rid themselves of so intolerable a hardship. Henry I. found it necessary it conciliate his subjects, by mitigating the most rigorous of the feudal laws. A greater advance was made under Henry II. by the

institution of the trial by jury. But John, imprudently resisting this natural progress towards a rational freedom, was soon compelled into those important concessions, the *Charta de Foresta* and *Magna Charta*. From that time, whatever we may judge of the actual government, which was often most arbitrary and despotical, the constitution of England was that of a limited monarchy.

3. The next memorable era in the growth of the English constitution was the reign of Henry III., when, under that weak prince, the parliament received a new form, by the admission of the representatives of the people, the deputies of the counties and boroughs. (Sect. XXII. § 2.) His successor Edward I. acknowledged their authority in obtaining all his subsidies, and ratified a new law, which declared, that no tax should be levied without the consent of Lords and Commons.—The *Magna Charta* was confirmed no less than eleven times in the course of this reign.

4. Thus the constitution continued advancing, till its progress was suspended by the civil wars of York and Lancaster. The rights of both prince and people seemed then to be entirely forgotten; and the race of Tudor found no resistance from parliament to their vigorous but despotic sway. The talents of Elizabeth, and the high character which her government sustained with foreign powers, extinguished all domestic disquiets, while the predominant feeling was the maintenance of the power and dignity of the crown.

5. But under the succeeding prince, when that power and dignity were abused by his own weakness, the nation began to awake from its lethargy; and that spirit of opposition, which in this reign confined itself to complaints, was in the next to break forth with alarming violence. Charles I., endowed with superior energy of character, and acting, as he conceived, on a principle of duty, which called on him to maintain the prerogative of his predecessors, and

transmit it unimpaired to his posterity, was imprudent in exerting with rigour an authority which he wanted ultimate resources to support. He was compelled to sign the *Petition of Rights*, a grant more favourable to liberty than *Magna Charta*. The true patriots were satisfied with this concession, which conferred the most ample constitutional freedom. But with the popular leaders patriotism was the cloak of insatiable ambition; and, advancing in their demands with every new compliance, the last appeal was made to the sword, and the contest ended by the destruction of the constitution.

6. The despotism which succeeded, and the fluctuation of power from the Long Parliament to the Protector, and finally to the leaders of a standing army, afforded convincing demonstration how vain was the chimera of a republic, under which the demagogues had masked their designs. Weary of anarchy, the nation returned with high satisfaction to the best of all constitutions, a limited monarchy.

7. New encroachments under Charles II. produced new limitations, and the act of *Habeas Corpus* gave the utmost possible security to personal liberty. The violent and frantic invasion of the constitution by James II. banished himself and his posterity from the throne, and produced a new and solemn contract between the king and people. Regarding, therefore, the revolution as the final settlement of the English constitution, we shall endeavour briefly to delineate the chief features of that great political structure.

8. The constitution of Great Britain may be viewed under two distinct heads, the legislative and the executive power; the last comprehending the prerogative of the crown.

The power of legislation belongs to parliament, whose constituents parts are, the King, Lords, and Commons. The House of Lords consists of the temporal peers of England, and the spiritual, viz. the two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. To these, since the union with Scotland and Ireland, are added

sixteen delegates from the peerage of the former kingdom, and twenty-eight peers, one archbishop, and three bishops, from the latter.* The House of Commons consists of the deputies of the counties and principal towns of England, and the two Universities, amounting in all to 513 members; to whom, since the unions, are added 45 from Scotland and 100 from Ireland.† These deputies are chosen by the freeholders who possess a property yielding a certain yearly rent.‡ The chancellor generally presides in the House of Lords; the speaker is president in the House of Commons.

9. The king is the most essential component part of parliament, because he alone has the power to convoke, prorogue, and dissolve it. He has likewise a negative on all its acts, which are invalid without his approbation; and each house has a negative on the decrees of the other. It is likewise competent to the king to propose any measure to be laid before the parliament.

10. All questions regarding public affairs and national measures may originate in either house of parliament, except grants of money, which must take their rise in the House of Commons, and cannot be altered, though they may be rejected, by the Lords. The matter must be primarily discussed in that house in which it originates, and, until there decided, cannot be received by the other, unless a conference should be demanded. A bill refused by either house, or, though passed by both, refused by the king, is utterly void.

11. The executive power of government is lodged in the king. (1.) The first branch of his office is the administration of justice. The judges of all courts

* The Irish bishops only sit one session in rotation, according to a fixed cycle, which always includes one archbishop and three bishops. The Scotch peers are elected for every new parliament, but the Irish peers are elected for life.

† By the Reform Act of 1831, there are 500 deputies or representatives for England and Wales, 53 for Scotland, and 105 for Ireland, amounting in all to 658.

‡ By the Reform Act, householders rated at £10 are entitled to vote

of judicature are the king's substitutes. He is the prosecutor of all crimes, and has the power of pardoning and suspending the execution of all sentences. (2.) He is the fountain of all honour, the giver of all titles and dignities, and the disposer of all the offices of state. (3.) He is the superintendent of commerce, and has the power of regulating weights and measures, and of coining money. (4.) He is the head of the church, and names the archbishops and bishops. (5.) He is commander-in-chief of all the sea and land forces, and can alone equip fleets, levy armies, and appoint all their officers. (6.) He has the power of making war, peace, and alliance, and of sending and receiving ambassadors. (7.) He is above the reach of all courts of justice, and is not responsible to any judicature for his conduct in the administration of government.

12. These high powers of the sovereign, which, at first sight, would seem to render him an absolute monarch, are thus admirably controlled:—The king is dependent on parliament for all subsidies, without which he can neither maintain his fleets and armies, nor pay the salaries of officers. The parliament indeed settles a revenue on the king for life, but this is merely sufficient for the maintenance of his household, and supporting a proper dignity of establishment; and as it must be renewed by parliament at the beginning of every reign, it is in the power of that body to withhold it till all abuses shall be remedied. Thus the constitution may be brought back at those periods to its first principles, and all encroachments of the prerogative restrained.

13. The king can never reign without a parliament. It must by law be assembled once in three years, on a notice of forty days before its meeting.*

* The original or first institution of parliaments is one of those matters which lie so far hidden in the dark ages of antiquity, that the tracing of it is equally difficult and uncertain. The word *parliament* is comparatively of modern date; and derived from the French, and signifies an assembly that met and conferred together. It was first applied to general assemblies of the states under Louis VII. of France,

Although the head of the church, the king cannot alter the established religion, nor frame ecclesiastical regulations; these must be made by the assembly of the clergy. The king cannot interfere in the ordinary administration of justice, nor refuse his consent to the prosecution of crimes. He may pardon offences, but cannot exempt the offender from pecuniary compensation to the party injured. He cannot alter the standard of money, either in weight or alloy. He cannot raise an army without the consent of parliament; and though a moderate standing force is kept up with their consent, the funds for its payment require an annual renewal by parliament.

Finally, although the sovereign himself is not amenable to any judicature, his ministers are responsible for all the measures of government, and are impeachable by the Commons at the bar of the House of Lords, for every species of misconduct or misdemeanour.

Moreover, the freedom of parliamentary discussion is secured, as no member can be questioned for any

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about the middle of the twelfth century. But it is certain that, long before the introduction of the Norman language into England, all matters importance were debated and settled in the great councils of the realm —a practice which seems to have been universal among the northern nations, particularly the Germans, and carried by them into all the countries of Europe. The first mention of the word parliament in our statute law is in the time of Edward I. (1272.) But it is agreed that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, wa marked out in the seventeenth year of King John (A.D. 1215), in th great charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons, personally: and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs; to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice (this period is now extended to fifty days since the union), to assess aids and scutages when necessary. By the ancient statutes of the realm the king was bound to summon parliament every year, or oftener, *if need be.* The last words are so loose and vague that such of our monarchs as were inclined to govern without parliaments neglected the convoking them, on the ground that there was no need of them. But this was remedied by the act of 16 Car. II., which enacted that the sittings of parliament shall not be intermitted above three years at most. Parliaments, as the distinction is now understood, were annual, that is, each member was elected to serve in one sessions or parliament only, these words at that time being synonymous. By the statute 6 William and Mary (1694) it was enacted, that a new parliament shall be called within three years from the termination of the former; but as the law now stands (1 Geo. I. 1715) parliaments continue for seven years, unless sooner dissolved by royal authority.

opinions or words, but in that house of parliament in which they were uttered.

14. The personal security and the rights of the subjects are farther guarded by these three peculiarities of the British constitution, the *Habeas Corpus*, Trial by Juries, and the Liberty of the Press. By the act of *Habeas Corpus*, every prisoner must be brought before a judge, the cause of his detainer certified, and the judge's authority interposed to it. The violation of this statute is punishable by the highest penalties. The *Habeas Corpus* may be suspended in times of danger to the state, as during the existence of a conspiracy or rebellion. Although this act does not extend to Scotland, the subjects of that part of the united kingdom are equally secured by their own laws.*

15. All crimes must be tried by a jury of twelve men in England and Ireland, and fifteen in Scotland; in the former unanimity of opinion is necessary, in the latter a majority only is required. The prisoner has a right of challenging or objecting to the jurors;† and (except in Scotland), without shewing any cause, he may challenge twenty successively in ordinary cases, and thirty-five in cases of treason. The jury are judges both of the law and the fact; nor has the opinion of the court any weight in their decision but such as they choose to give it.

16. The liberty of the press is in this respect a guardian of the constitution, that it is competent for any individual to convey to the public his opinion of the whole conduct of government, and the merits of its conductors; to canvass every counsel of state, and examine every public measure; thus forcibly restraining all ministers and magistrates within the limits of their duty. It is farther the guardian of injured innocence, and the redresser of all wrongs

* Statute 1701, c. 6.

† If an alien be a party in a criminal suit, he has the right to be tried by a jury one-half denizens and the other half aliens—a privilege indulged to strangers in no other country.

that evade the cognizance of law. Yet this most valuable right, if itself unrestrained, would be the source of the greatest mischief. If it were allowable with impunity to assail the established government, to convulse society, to disseminate Atheism, to injure the reputation or endanger the life and property of individuals by false accusations, there would be an end of all liberty and civil happiness. The liberty of the press consists in this, that there is no examination of writings previous to their being printed and published; but, after publication, such writings as offend in any of the above particulars, are, on trial of the offence by jury, punishable by law. Thus the public is properly constituted the judge and censor of all writings addressed to itself.

17. Such are briefly the outlines of the admirable fabric of the British constitution. *Esto perpetua!*

LX.

OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

1. The property belonging to the crown of Great Britain, which was anciently very great, and fully adequate to the maintenance of government, consisted of domain lands, the first-fruits and tenths of church-benefices, the rents of vacant bishoprics and abbeys, the profits of military tenures, fines imposed in courts of justice, forfeitures, &c. These are now from alienations made by the sovereigns, and retrenchments of their prerogative, become so inconsiderable, that the king may be considered as entirely dependent on the people for the support of his dignity, and the means of carrying on the business of the state. The public revenue, destined both for the former and latter purpose, arises now from the subsidies granted by the people. The supplies are voted by the Commons, and the means of furnishing

them, by taxes proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, must receive their sanction.

2. Of these taxes, some are voted annually, as the land-tax and malt-tax; others are perpetual, as the customs, excise, post-office duty, stamps, window-tax, duties on servants, hackney-coaches, pensions, &c. The customs are a tax paid by the merchant on all imported and exported commodities; the excise an inland imposition, laid sometimes on the consumer, and sometimes on the retail-seller.

3. The produce of these taxes is, in the first place, destined to the paying the interest of the national debt, and afterwards to the ordinary support of government.

The national debt arose soon after the Revolution, when it was thought hazardous to impose annual taxes equal to the annual expense of government, and more expedient to borrow large sums for the immediate service of the state, raising annually no more than to pay the interest of that debt. The same system has been since persevered in; so that the national debt, which a century ago was 16,000,000, is now nearly 800,000,000. To pay the interest of this enormous sum, the produce of the taxes (excepting the malt and land-tax) are primarily destined; and as somewhat more is annually raised than that exigence and the maintenance of government demand, the surplus is employed in paying off the principal of the debt.*

4. The produce of the taxes, originally separate funds, is now thrown into two or three capital funds,

* The *sinking fund* scheme was found, after a trial of many years, to be a deception, and the present plan of only applying the surplus revenue to the liquidation of the national debt will not make any impression upon that enormous amount. It seems now to be generally admitted, that the only reasonable plan is to convert the debt into terminable annuities, and, as Sir H. Parnell has very properly observed, 'if all the loans which have been raised since the beginning of the war of 1739, had been borrowed in annuities for ninety-nine years, in 1840 the extinction of them would commence, and in eighty-four years the whole debt incurred up to 1815 would be extinguished; more need not be said to prove the expediency of borrowing in terminable annuities.'

one of which is mortgaged by parliament for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list, viz. the salaries of officers of state, judges, ambassadors, private expenses, pensions, &c.

5. Notwithstanding the little prospect of an extinction of the national debt, government maintains its credit, and will always find lenders, because the terms granted are beneficial, and the security is transferable; so that a lender can thus always obtain payment of his principal sum, and frequently make gain by the transference. The value of stock rises and falls from various occasional causes, as, national prosperity, or the reverse, plenty or scarcity of money, quantity of public debt. On this variation is founded the practice of stock-jobbing; that is, either buying and selling actual property in the public funds, which is a lawful speculation, or gaming and wagering on the price of stock, which is an illicit though common practice. The practice of stock-jobbing, even by the transference of actual property, far more by gaming on that which is fictitious, is prejudicial to commerce and manufactures, by engrossing a great part of the national wealth, repressing industry, encouraging fraud, and often tempting to the most treacherous and dangerous devices for raising and sinking the funds.

LXI.

HISTORY OF FRANCE UNDER LEWIS XIII.

1. France, which under Henry IV. had risen from a state of miserable anarchy to high prosperity and splendour, sunk, upon his death, into weakness, faction, and disorder. Mary of Medici, regent in the minority of her son Lewis XIII., a weak woman, and of restless ambition, disgusted the nobility by her partiality for her Italian courtiers. Concini, her first minister, created Marshal d'Ancre, became so

universally odious, that he was openly murdered in the Louvre, and his body torn to pieces. The queen was removed from Paris, and kept for two years a prisoner at Blois, till relieved by the duke d' Epernon, to serve his own purposes of ambition. The queen's party was at war with that of her son, and the whole kingdom in a state of anarchy.

2. The genius of cardinal Richelieu, who was now brought into power by Mary of Medici, soon effected a wonderful change. He reconciled the mother and her son, soothed the contending factions, and, on the king's assuming the government, directed every public measure to the complete re-establishment of the power and dignity of the monarchy. The party of the Calvinists, alienated by persecution, attempted to throw off their allegiance, and establish an independent state, of which Rochelle should be the capital. Richelieu bargained with the Dutch to furnish a fleet for subduing their Protestant brethren, and the Dutch now fought as keenly for the Catholic religion as they had lately done for the Protestant. The English sent a fleet to the aid of the Rochellois, who for a year maintained a most obstinate siege against the French troops commanded by the cardinal in person. They were at length forced to surrender; and Rochelle, and all the other Protestant cities of France, were stripped of their privileges, and had their fortifications destroyed. Thus Calvinism was for ever crushed in France.

3. Lewis XIII. though a weak prince, saw his advantage in entering into all the great designs of his minister. Richelieu influenced the politics of all Europe. The power of Austria was attacked in Germany, Flanders, Spain, and Italy; and the talents of the minister were equally displayed in active war, in foreign negotiation, and in his domestic arrangements. Yet at this very time a formidable cabal was undermining him. Mary of Medici was jealous of the man she had raised, and the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, sought to

supplant him in his power. Richelieu, with astonishing intrepidity of mind, repressed this conspiracy. Fortified by the king's authority, he seized the marshal de Marillac, one of his most dangerous enemies, at the head of his army, and tried and put him to death by a lawless stretch of power. Orleans, apprehensive of a similar fate, fled the kingdom; and Mary of Medici, arrested and removed from court, ended her career of ambition in voluntary exile at Brussels. Orleans, supported by the duke de Montmorenci, attempted a rebellion; but their army was defeated, and Montmorenci executed for treason. The queen had taken part with the enemies of the cardinal. He imprisoned her confessor, seized and examined her papers; and Anne of Austria was very near sharing the fate of Mary of Medici.

4. Amidst all this turbulence both of foreign war and state cabal, Richelieu cultivated the pursuits of literature, encouraged the sciences, instituted the French Academy, and composed pieces for the theatre. The administration of Richelieu, though turbulent from faction and civil war, was, on the whole, extremely glorious for France, and the seeds were sown of the splendour of that monarchy in the succeeding age of Lewis XIV. The death of this great minister (1642) was soon after followed by that of his sovereign, Lewis XIII. (1643.)

LXII.

SPAIN UNDER PHILIP III. AND PHILIP IV.—CONSTITUTION OF PORTUGAL AND OF SPAIN.

1. From the death of Philip II. Spain declined in power, and, notwithstanding her great sources of wealth, the national finances were in the utmost disorder. Philip III. was forced to conclude a peace with the Dutch, and to restore to the house of Nassau its confiscated estates. With a weak and

despicable policy, he expelled from his kingdom all the Moors, who were the most industrious of its inhabitants (1610); and this depopulation, joined to that already produced by her American colonies, rendered Spain a lifeless and enervated mass.

2. The national weakness and its disorders increased under Philip IV., who, equally spiritless as his father, was implicitly ruled by his minister Olivarez, as the former had been by the duke of Lerma. His reign was one continued series of miscarriages and defeats. The Dutch seized Brazil; the French invaded Artois; Catalonia revolted to France; and Portugal shook off its yoke, and became an independent kingdom.

3. No revolution was ever effected with such ease and celerity as that of Portugal. The people were disgusted with the rigorous and impolitic administration of Olivarez. The duke of Braganza, descended from the ancient kings of Portugal, had at this time the command of the army. Instigated by the ambition of his dutchess, and seeing the spirit of the nation favourable to his views, he caused himself to be proclaimed king at Lisbon. The Spanish guards were attacked and routed, and the chief partisans of the government put to death by the populace. All the principal towns followed the example of the capital, and soon after all the foreign settlements. From that era (1640), Portugal became an independent sovereignty, after having been for sixty years an appanage of the kingdom of Spain.

4. The government of Portugal approaches to an absolute monarchy. The consent of the states or *Cortes*, consisting of clergy, nobility and commons, was formerly necessary to the imposition of taxes, and the settlement of the succession to the crown. But this assembly, never convoked but by the royal mandate, has now for a long time ceased to meet. The ordinary business of government is transacted by the king and his council of state, which is appointed by himself. The crown's revenue arose from its

domains, including the family estates of Braganza, from the duties on exports and imports, from the taxes, and from a stated proportion of the gold brought from Brazil. The state of the commerce and manufactures of Portugal is extremely low; and, though favoured by soil and climate, the agriculture of the kingdom is much neglected.

5. The reigns of Philip III. and IV., of Spain, though an era of national humiliation, derived some small lustre from the state of literature. Dramatic composition, poetry, and romance, and even history, were cultivated with great success. But these are in some sort the amusements of indolence, and this was the predominant character of the people. This character may have arisen from two sources: the torrent of wealth poured in from America retarded, in the lower classes, domestic industry and manufactures, while it increased the pride of the gentry, and made them disdain all occupation; and the despotism of the government is strongly repressive of all enterprise and activity in the people.

6. The constitution of Spain, of which the sovereignty was in ancient times elective, is now that of an absolute monarchy. The crown is hereditary; though at different times, as in 1619 and 1713, there has been a new limitation made by the monarch of the succession. The *Cortes*, or states of the kingdom, limited in former times the power of the sovereign, but Charles V. reduced their authority to nothing, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their seat in those assemblies; the remaining members, the deputies of the towns, being entirely under the control of the monarch. The king's council, or *Conseja Real*, is the organ of government; but there is no department of the state which has any constitutional power to regulate the will of the prince.

LXIII.

AFFAIRS OF GERMANY FROM THE ABDICATION OF CHARLES V. TO THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

1. To preserve the connexion of the affairs of Germany with those of the other kingdoms of Europe, we must look back to the period of the abdication of Charles V., when the empire was distracted both by the political factions and quarrels of its independent princes, and the contending sects of the Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists. Ferdinand attempted to reconcile these factions, and unite the three religions, but in vain. Maximilian II. had still less power to effect this object than his predecessor; nor was the face of affairs at all changed during the succeeding reigns of Rodolphus II. and his brother Matthias. A civil war of thirty years' duration reduced the empire to extremity.* Under Ferdinand II., a zealous Catholic, the Protestant states of Bohemia, who had suffered under the government of Matthias, conferred their crown on the Elector Palatine; and the emperor, in revenge, deprived him both of his crown and his electorate.

2. The Protestant cause was declining fast in Germany, and every thing seemed to indicate success to the schemes of Ferdinand for its entire annihilation, when it received new vigour from the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. This great prince defeated the imperial generals, and carried the Protestant banners triumphantly through Germany. The emperor was completely

* Matthias, when archduke, had been favourable to the Protestants, but he now resolved to curb them. He had his cousin Ferdinand, duke of Styria, chosen his successor in Bohemia and Hungary, and he made a family compact with the court of Spain. The Protestants were alarmed; the Bohemians and Hungarians had recourse to arms: the latter were easily quelled; but the former were joined by the Protestants of Silesia, Moravia, and Upper Austria, and supported by an army of other German Protestants under count Mansfeld. Thus began the thirty years' war.

humbled, and the Elector Palatine on the eve of restoration to his dominions, when the heroic Gustavus was slain in the battle of Lutzen (1632). The war was successfully prosecuted by the Swedish generals, while cardinal Richelieu harassed the house of Austria both in Germany and Spain.

3. In the succeeding reign of Ferdinand III. the Protestants of Germany found the most active support both from the Swedes and the French; and the emperor being forced to conclude the peace of Westphalia (1648), these powers dictated its terms. By this celebrated treaty all disputes were settled between the contending princes of the empire and the contending religions. The Swedes were indemnified for the charges of the war, and acquired Pomerania, Stettin, Wismar, &c., and their sovereign the dignity of prince of the empire; the Palatine family was restored to its chief possessions; the king of France made landgrave of Alsace; and an equal establishment decreed of the three religions. This salutary peace laid the foundation of the future greatness and prosperity of the German empire.

LXIV.

FRANCE UNDER LEWIS XIV.

1. On the death of Lewis XIII. (1663), his son Lewis XIV. succeeded to the throne in the fifth year of his age. Europe, as we have seen, was in a most turbulent state; and France, under the administration of Richelieu, acted a conspicuous part in exciting those general commotions. The queen-mother, Anne of Austria, appointed regent by the states, chose for her minister the cardinal Mazarin, an Italian, and from that circumstance odious to the people. The Spaniards, taking advantage of the king's minority and the popular discontents, made an attack on Champagne; but they were defeated in a

series of engagements by the great Condé; and the marshal de Turenne shared with him the palm of glory. The peace of Westphalia composed these differences.

2. At this very time the commotions of the *Fronde* broke out in Paris. The jealousy felt by the nobility of Mazarin's power, the unpopularity of his measures, the disorder of the finances, and the oppression of new taxes, inflamed the nation; and the intrigues of the coadjutor, afterwards cardinal de Retz, blew up this flame into a civil war. The parliament of Paris took part with the rebels, who were headed by the prince of Conti, the dukes of Longueville and Bouillon, and the chief nobility. The queen and the royal family removed to St. Germain's, and the ministerial party besieged Paris. Turenne, who at first supported them, was gained over by the rebels. The women, who have always their part in the disturbances of France, had a conspicuous share in those of the *Fronde*. A short pacification ensued; but the imprudent violence of Mazarin soon renewed the disorders. At length the parliament of Paris assumed the right of banishing this unpopular minister, who retired to the imperial dominions, though his influence continued still to regulate the measures of state.

3. A change ensued on the king's coming of age (1652). De Retz and Orleans, the chief promoters of the rebellion, were banished, and Mazarin resumed his station as minister.—Condé had joined the Spaniards in an attack on the French Netherlands, but was overmatched by Turenne, who revenged this insult by the taking of Dunkirk and several fortified towns under the Spanish government. Dunkirk was, by convention with Cromwell, ceded to the English, and afterwards sold back to France, as we have seen, by Charles II.

4. The war with Spain was ended in 1659, by the peace of the Pyrenees. Many cessions were made on both sides, but France kept Roussillon and part of

Artois. It was stipulated that Louis XIV. should marry the infanta, daughter of Philip IV., but should renounce all right that might thence open to the crown of Spain.

5. The treaty of the Pyrenees gave peace to the south of Europe; and the wars in the north between Sweden, Poland, and Denmark, which arose after the abdication of Christina of Sweden, were terminated in the year following by the treaty of Oliva. Christina, a singular but not a great character, held the sceptre of Sweden for twenty-two years after the death of her father, Gustavus Adolphus; till at length, tired of the cares of government, and affecting a passion for literature and philosophy, she resigned the crown in 1654, to her cousin Charles X.; an example which was followed soon after by Casimir king of Poland, though after an honourable reign, and for a better reason—age and sickness.

6. Mazarin died in 1661, and Lewis XIV. entered on a vigorous and splendid career. The finances, which from the time of Henry IV. had been in extreme disorder, were admirably regulated by Colbert; and the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom, wisely encouraged by government, were soon in the most flourishing situation. The canal of Languedoc joined the Bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean; the principal sea-ports were enlarged and fortified; and the internal police of the kingdom was regularly and strictly enforced. The arms of France aided at the same time England against the Dutch, Germany against the Turks, and Portugal against Spain.

7. On the death of Philip IV., Lewis, on pretence that Spain had failed in payment of the dowry of his queen, besieged and took Lisle, with several other fortified towns of Flanders, and in the next campaign made himself master of Franche-Comté. The sovereign marched with his armies, but the glory of these conquests was owing to Turenne and Vauban. The triple alliance formed by England, Holland, and

Sweden, checked this career, and brought about the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668), by which Lewis, though he retained Flanders, restored Franche-Comté, and confirmed the peace of the Pyrences.

8. The strength and prosperity of the kingdom continued to increase under the able administration of Colbert and Louvois. The civil factions of Holland between the Stadtholder and the party of the De Wits, tempted Lewis to undertake the conquest of that country; and England, Germany, and Sweden, favoured his views. He overran the provinces of Utrecht. Overyssel, and Guelderland, and advanced almost to the gates of Amsterdam, when the Dutch inundated the country by letting in the sea, and the French were forced to retreat.

9. The confederate powers now became jealous of the ascendancy of France; and the prince of Orange had sufficient influence with England, and both branches of the house of Austria, to obtain their alliance in aid of the republic. The arms of Lewis, however, still continued to be successful, and the peace concluded at Nimeguen, in 1678, was much to the honour of France. Franche-Comté was assured as a part of her dominions, and Spain allowed her right by conquest to a great proportion of the Netherlands.

10. Notwithstanding the peace, Lewis, with the most culpable insincerity, seized Strasburg, and secretly took part with the Hungarians and Turks, in their attack on the imperial dominions. Vienna must have fallen into the hands of the Turks, had it not been seasonably relieved by the victorious arms of John Sobieski, king of Poland (1683).

11. One of the weakest and most impolitic measures of Lewis XIV. was the revocation of the edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV. for the toleration of the Protestants. While their worship was suppressed, their churches demolished, and their ministers banished, the Protestant laity were forbidden, under the most rigorous penalties, to quit the kingdom (1685). France, however, by this measure lost

above 500,000 of her most industrious and useful subjects; and the name of Lewis XIV. was execrated over a great part of Europe.—It was not long after this time that a similar excess of intolerant bigotry precipitated James II. from the throne of Britain, and forced him to seek an asylum from the monarch of France.

12. William prince of Orange, the inveterate enemy of Lewis, brought about the league of Augsburg (1686); and the war was renewed with France by Germany, Spain, England, and Holland. The French arms were still successful. Luxemburg defeated William in the battles of Steenkirk and Nerwinden; Noailles was victorious in Spain; and an army of 100,000 French ravaged the Palatinate, and took many of the most important towns on the Rhine. This was the crisis of the glory of Lewis, whose fortunes were to sustain the most mortifying reverse.

13. Those various and most extensive military enterprises, however flattering to the pride of the monarch, had been attended with enormous expense, and no solid advantage to the nation. The finances had fallen into disorder after the death of Colbert: a peace was absolutely necessary; and by the treaty of Ryswick, concluded in 1697, Lewis restored to Spain all the conquests made in the two last wars, several towns to the emperor, the dutchy of Lorraine to its duke, and acknowledged the right of William to the crown of England.

14. The succession to the kingdom of Spain, on the expected death of Charles II. without issue, was now the object of political intrigue. The emperor and the king of France had the only natural right of succession; but William III. of England, from the dread of such an increase of power to either, proposed a treaty of partition of the Spanish dominions, at home and abroad, between the Elector of Bavaria, the Dauphin, and the emperor's second son. Charles II. chose rather to make his own destination, and

appointed by will that the duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin, should inherit Spain; on whose death without issue, it should devolve on the archduke Charles, youngest son of the emperor.

15. On the death of Charles, the duke of Anjou succeeded to the throne of Spain, in virtue of this settlement. The emperor, the king of England, and the Dutch, proposed to separate from his crown the Spanish dominions in Italy. In this enterprise prince Eugene, son of the count de Soissons, commanded the imperial troops, an illustrious renegado from France, of great prowess and military skill.

16. James II. of England died in 1701 at St. Germain's, and Lewis gave mortal offence to that government by acknowledging the title of his son. On the death of king William in the year following, war was declared by England, Holland, and the empire, against France and Spain. Lewis XIV. was now in the decline of life. He had lost the ablest of his ministers and his greatest generals. The finances of the kingdom were exhausted. The armies of his enemies were commanded by Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, the ablest generals of the age, and supported by the treasures of the united powers. Savoy and Portugal joined this formidable confederacy, to overwhelm both branches of the house of Bourbon, and place the emperor's son on the throne of Spain.

17. Marlborough took Venlo, Ruremonde, and Liege, and, together with Eugene, defeated Tallard and Marsin, with the elector of Bavaria, in the signal battle of Blenheim (1704). England and Holland attacked Spain by sea and land. Catalonia and Valencia were subdued in six weeks; and Gibraltar, taken by the English, has ever since remained with them. In the battle of Ramilies, Marlborough defeated Villeroy, and left 20,000 dead on the field. The contest, at first doubtful in Italy, ended alike disastrously for the house of Bourbon. The archduke Charles was in the mean time proclaimed king

at Madrid; and Philip V. had serious thoughts of abandoning Spain, and establishing his dominion in America. But the successes of the duke of Berwick, natural son of James II., recovered for a while his desponding spirit, and even prompted his grandfather Lewis to avenge himself on England, by aiding the bold but desperate enterprise of establishing the pretender James on the throne of Britain.

18. But France and Spain were daily losing ground. The pope had acknowledged the title of the archduke Charles; the English seized the Mediterranean islands; and Lewis, fallen from all his proud pretensions, humbly entreated a peace, which was refused, unless on the condition of dethroning his grandson with his own arms. He maintained for a while this unequal contest, and was at length forced to propose terms equally humiliating; the cession of all his conquests in the Netherlands and on the Rhine; the acknowledgment of the archduke's title to the crown of Spain; and a promise to give no aid to his grandson; but these were refused, and the inhuman condition still insisted on, that he should himself assist in dethroning his grandson. A last exertion was made in Spain under the duke of Vendôme, at the head of a prodigious army; and the victory obtained by the French at Villa-vitiosa restored Philip V. to the throne of Spain. His competitor, the archduke, soon after became emperor on the death of his elder brother.

19. The intrigues of the cabinet of queen Anne, and the coming in of a Tory ministry, changed the politics of Europe. It was resolved to make peace with France and Spain, and the treaty was concluded at Utrecht (1713).—It was stipulated that Philip king of Spain should renounce all eventual right to the crown of France, as his brother should to the crown of Spain; the Dutch obtained an extension of frontier; the emperor a great part of Spanish Flanders; the English gained from Spain, Gibraltar and Minorca, and from France, Acadia, Newfound-

land, and Hudson's Bay; with one term most humbling to the latter—the demolition of the harbour of Dunkirk. In the following year a peace was concluded at Rastadt between France and the empire.

20. The conclusion of this peace, after an honourable war, was the most memorable event in the reign of queen Anne, if we except the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland (1706), which was brought about by the negotiation of commissioners mutually chosen, to secure the rights of either kingdom in the best manner for their mutual benefit. It was stipulated that they should be represented by one parliament (Sect. LIX. § 8), but that each kingdom should retain its own laws and its established religion, and that they should have the same privileges with respect to commerce. The succession to the crown was limited to the house of Hanover. Queen Anne died 30th of July 1714, and Lewis XIV. on the 1st of September 1715, in the 78th year of his age; a prince of great vigour of mind, of good talents, though unimproved by education, of dignified yet amiable manners, and whose greatest fault was his inordinate ambition, to which he sacrificed the real interests of his people. It was his highest honour, that he discerned and recompensed every species of merit; and France was in his time equally illustrious by the great military talents of her generals, and by the splendour of literature and the arts and sciences.

LXV.

OF THE CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE UNDER THE MONARCHY.

1. It is necessary for understanding the history of France, that we should have some acquaintance with its former monarchical constitution; and we shall very briefly trace the progress of its government

under the different races of its sovereigns. The regal prerogative was, under the Merovingian princes, extremely limited. (See Sect. II. III.) The general assembly of the nation had the right of electing the sovereign, and the power of legislation. Under the Carlovingian race, the authority acquired by Pepin and Charlemagne sunk to nothing in the hands of their weak posterity; and though the crown had ceased to be elective, the regal dignity was a mere shadow. The power of the state had passed into the hands of a turbulent aristocracy, ever at variance among themselves, and uniting only to abase the crown and oppress the people.

2. Under the third Capetian race, the crown acquired more weight, and many of the sovereigns exerted a proper spirit in restraining the power and punishing the lawless outrages of the nobles. It was to balance the weight of the aristocracy that Philip the Fair introduced the third estate to the national assemblies, which for above four centuries had consisted only of the nobles and clergy. The chief power of the state began now to shift to the scale of the monarch. The national assembly interfered rather to ratify than to decree; and in the fifteenth century the right of legislation was understood to reside wholly in the crown. The right of taxation seemed to follow of course; and the assemblies or states-general were now rarely convened, and from the reign of Lewis XIII. entirely laid aside.

3. But another power gradually arose in the state, which in some measure supplied their function in limiting the royal prerogative. The parliaments were originally nothing more than the chief courts of justice in the territory where they were established. The parliament of Paris had naturally a higher respect and dignity than those of the provinces, and, acquiring a right of appeal from their decrees, was considered as the paramount jurisdiction, and the depository of the laws of the kingdom. The sovereigns of France, on first assuming the

powers of legislation and taxation, produced their edicts to be registered in that court, and frequently consulted with its members on momentous affairs of state, as in questions of peace, war, or alliance. Thus the nation began to regard the parliament of Paris as a body which shared the powers of government with the monarch: and, in the latter reigns, the parliament availed itself of that general opinion, and made a bold stand in opposing any arbitrary stretches of the king's authority by refusing to verify and register his edicts.

4. But as this power of the parliament was in reality an usurpation, it was constantly a subject of dispute. The members of this court were in no sense the representatives of the people, or vested with any portion of the constitutional authority of the national assemblies. They were in the king's nomination, removable by him at pleasure, and even subject to entire annihilation as a body at his command. Nay, without so violent a remedy, the sovereign could at any time frustrate their opposition to his will, by appearing personally in the hall of parliament, and commanding his edict to be registered.

5. Yet even a power thus easily defeasible had its advantages to the state, and operated as a very considerable restraint on the royal authority. Considering itself as the guardian of the public liberty, it remonstrated against all arbitrary encroachments of the crown, and by giving alarm to the nation, furnished an opposition sufficiently powerful to obtain its ends. The provincial parliaments, although they likewise registered the royal edicts, never assumed any similar authority. They were no more than the chief courts of civil judicature.

6. The king of France was therefore to be considered as an absolute monarch, but whose authority was in some degree limited by the consuetudinary regulations of the state, and could not easily become entirely despotic and tyrannical. The crown was hereditary, but could not descend to a female, nor to

a natural son. The royal revenue was partly fixed and partly arbitrary. The former comprehended the royal domains, the duties on wines and salt, the land-tax, capitation-tax, and gift of the clergy; the latter arose from all other taxes which the monarch thought fit to impose, and from the sale of offices. Most of these duties were leased out to the farmers-general.

7. The Gallican church, though Catholic, and acknowledging the spiritual authority of the pope, had greatly abridged his ancient prerogatives within the kingdom. The assembly of the church, in 1682, declared, that no temporal sovereign could be deposed by the pope, or subjects absolved from their allegiance: it decreed the subjection of the pope to the councils of the church, and denied his infallibility when in opposition to the canons of those councils. The pope had no power to levy money in France without the royal license. In short, the ecclesiastical authority was in all respects subordinate to the civil.

LXVI.

OF PETER THE GREAT, CZAR OF MUSCOVY, AND CHARLES XII., KING OF SWEDEN.

1. Two most illustrious characters adorned the north of Europe in the latter part of the age of Lewis XIV.—Peter the Great of Muscovy, and Charles XII. of Sweden.

Russia is said to have received the light of Christianity in the tenth century, but its history is utterly unknown till the middle of the fifteenth. At that period John Basilowitz redeemed the empire from its subjection to the Tartars, and extended its limits. His successors maintained a considerable splendour as sovereigns; but their dominions were uncultivated, and their subjects barbarians. Alexis Michaelowitz,

father of Peter the Great, was the first who published a code of laws. It was not till the end of the sixteenth century that Siberia was added to the empire, which till then was bounded by the limits of Europe.

2. Peter, the youngest son of the emperor Alexis, became master of the empire in 1689, by setting aside a weak elder brother, and banishing a factious sister, who had seized the government. Utterly uneducated, his youth had been spent in debauchery; but his new situation immediately displayed his talents, and gave birth to the wisest plans for the improvement of a barbarous people. The army and navy demanded his first attention. He began by breaking the turbulent militia of the Strelitzes, and by degrees formed a regular army of 12,000 men, on the strictest model of discipline. He employed some Dutchmen to build a small fleet, and made the first experiment of his arms in taking Azof from the Turks (1696).

3. Having gained the little instruction he possessed from foreigners, Peter resolved to travel in search of knowledge. Appointing Le Fort, an able Genevese, his ambassador, he travelled as a private person in his suite through Germany to Holland, and studied the art of ship-building, by working in the docks with his own hands. Thence he passed to England, and in a similar manner acquired the knowledge of every art fitted for the improvement of his kingdom. The relative sciences were cultivated with the same ardour and success; and in sixteen months he returned to Moscow to reduce those important acquirements into practice.

4. Regiments were raised and trained to exercise on the German model; the finances arranged and systematized; the church reformed by new canons and regulations; the patriarchate abolished; and a much abused civil and criminal jurisdiction taken from the clergy. It was necessary to carry this reform even to the abolition of the national dress, and the suppression of ancient usages and habits of

of Philip V. The czar joined in the scheme, and made peace with Sweden; but an unforeseen event broke all their measures. In besieging the Norwegian fortress of Frederickshall, Charles XII. was killed by a cannon ball, 11th of December, 1718.

10. Sweden gained by the death of Charles a reformation of her government, and a salutary limitation of the arbitrary power of the sovereign. His sister Ulrica succeeded to the throne, and raised to it her husband, Frederick, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The states made peace with all the hostile powers. The czar was now engaged in a war with Persia, in the view of obtaining the command and commerce of the Caspian. This object he accomplished, and gained, by cession from the sophi, three provinces of the Persian empire.

11. Peter the Great died on the 28th of January 1725, and was succeeded by the czarina Catherine, formerly a Livonian captive, but who possessed merit equal to her elevated situation. His only son, Alexis Petrowitz, had been condemned to lose his life for treason; and the mode of his death which immediately followed his condemnation, is at this moment unknown. Russia owes to Peter the Great all those beneficial improvements which have raised her, within the period of a century, from barbarism and obscurity, to the highest rank among the powers of Europe.

LXVII.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF SCIENCE AND LITERATURE IN EUROPE:

FROM THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE END OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. We have seen how much literature and the sciences were indebted to the art of printing for their advancement and dissemination towards the end of the fifteenth century. (See Sect. XXXIV.

§ 12.) From that period classical learning, criticism, poetry, and history, made a rapid progress in most of the kingdoms of Europe. Philosophy did not keep pace. The dogmas of Aristotle had possession of the schools down to the seventeenth century, and had engrafted themselves even on the doctrines of theology. It required a superior genius to dissipate this mist of error, and break those fetters on all advancement in useful science; and such was the great Bacon, lord Verulam, the most profound philosopher, and perhaps the most universal genius, that any age ever produced. We find in his works an estimate of the actual attainments in all the sciences, a catalogue of the desiderata in each department, and a detail of the methods best suited to prosecute improvement and new discoveries. In fine, we owe to Bacon the sure method of advancing in knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature, instead of system and conjecture.

2. The philosophy of Bacon produced its effect only by slow degrees. Gassendi, though he exposed the doctrines of Aristotle, was still a theorist, and attempted to revive the atomic system of Epicurus. Des Cartes followed in the same track, and reared a whimsical theory of the universe, produced, as he supposed, by the fortuitous combination of atoms, moving in vortices through the immensity of space; a theory recommended by the ingenuity with which it was supported, and its apparently solving many of the phenomena of nature. Copernicus had, a century before, published his system of the planets, which, though condemned by the church, was received by Des Cartes and the best philosophers.

3. Galileo, in 1609, constructed telescopes (Sect. XXXIV. § 5), and discovered the satellites of the larger planets and their motions, for which he was rewarded by imprisonment, as a supporter of the Copernican heresy. Kepler investigated the laws which regulate the motions of the planets, and the analogy between their distances from the sun and

periodical revolutions. The discoveries in astronomy led to improvements in navigation, and a great advancement of geometry in all its branches. Napier, in 1614, abridged calculation by the invention of logarithms. The Torricellian experiments determined the weight of the atmosphere. In 1616 Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

4. The Royal Society, which originated from private meetings of the English philosophers, was incorporated by Charles II. in 1662, and has greatly contributed to the advancement of the sciences and useful arts. The Royal Academy of Sciences was instituted in 1666, by Lewis XIV.; and similar institutions were founded in most of the countries of Europe; among which there is a communication of science, and a laudable emulation excited by the publication of their transactions.

5. In the end of the seventeenth century arose the immortal Newton, who, by exhausting the most important discoveries of the laws of nature, has rendered it impossible for posterity to eclipse his fame. He had discovered, before the age of twenty-four, the theory of universal gravitation, a principle which solves the chief phenomena of nature, and connects and regulates the whole machine of the universe. His theory of light and colours is the foundation of the whole science of optics, and his *Principia* the basis and elements of all philosophy.

6. Locke, the contemporary of Newton, successfully applied Lord Bacon's mode of investigation to the study of the human mind; and utterly rejecting the systems of the old philosophers, examined the soul by attending to its operations. From the simple fact that all knowledge is progressive, and that an infant gains its ideas gradually through the medium of its senses, he drew the general conclusion, that there are no innate ideas in the mind, but all are either immediate perceptions conveyed by the senses, or acts of the mind reflecting on those perceptions; a conclusion which has been obstinately

controverted, chiefly by drawing from it false consequences, but which has never yet been shaken.

7. The progress of literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was equally remarkable with that of science and philosophy. Trissino was the first of the moderns who composed an epic poem in the language of his country, *L'Italia liberata da Goti*, and the first Italian who wrote a regular tragedy, *Sophonisba*. Of much superior merit to the epic poem of Trissino is the *Lusiad* of the Portuguese Camoens, a work abounding in passages of high poetic beauty, and displaying a sublime imagination. In the end of the sixteenth century Spain produced the *Araucana* of Ercilla, an epic poem of great inequality of merit, but frequently exhibiting novelty of figures and bold conceptions. The subject is a revolt of the Peruvians against the Spaniards.

8. But the principal epic poems of this age are the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso; the former a work most irregular in its plan, most unconnected and desultory in its conduct, most extravagant and absurd in the characters of its persons, but displaying alternately every excellence of poetry, in the various departments of the descriptive, comic, satiric, moral, and sublime. The *Gierusalemme* of Tasso, of a regular plan and perfect polish in its structure, has been frequently brought in comparison with the equally high-finished poem of the *Æneid*; nor does the Italian suffer much in the comparison. There is a romantic charm both in the incidents and characters of his poem, which must ever render it a favourite with all readers of genuine taste.

9. From the time of Tasso the genius of epic poetry lay dormant for a century, till the days of Milton; for the *Faery Queen* of Spenser is rather a romantic allegory than an epic poem. The *Paradise Lost*, compared with the great poems of antiquity, is more irregular and less perfect as a whole than the *Iliad*, *Æneid*, and *Odyssey*, but exhibits in

detached parts more of the sublime and beautiful than them all. It has been well remarked, that the inequality of this poem arises in a great measure from the nature of the subject, of which some parts are the most lofty that can enter into the human mind, and others could only have been supported by a laborious elegance and polish, which the author's genius could not stoop to bestow.

10. Lyric poetry was cultivated in the sixteenth century, in Italy, France, and England, but with no high success. The lesser poems of Ariosto and Tasso have no tincture of the genius displayed in their greater works. Chiabrera is perhaps the only lyric poet of this period that merits distinction. In France, Ronsard and Bellay imitated Petrarch with all his false wit, but without his passion. Marot, however, in the *naiveté* and easy vein of his humour, is justly accounted the master of La Fontaine. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, French versification received a considerable polish from the compositions of Racan, and yet more from those of Malherbe: and towards the end of that century lyric poetry was cultivated with high success by La Farre, Chapelle and Bachaumont, Chaulieu, and Gresset.

11. The English lyric poetry of the sixteenth century, of Spenser, Surrey, Harrington, Sydney, and even Shakspeare, is harsh and inharmonious; nor is much improvement discernible till the time of Cowley and Waller. The merit of Cowley as a lyric poet was too highly prized in his own age, and is underrated in ours. With all his false wit, pedantry, and obscurity, he is often both sublime and pathetic in no moderate degree. The lyric ode in the third book of the *Davideis* has few parallels in the English language. As a prose writer, Cowley shines in that age with superior excellence. Waller is more polished and harmonious than any of the preceding or contemporary poets, but his wit is quaint, and his elevation too frequently bombast.

12. Dryden, in the end of the seventeenth century,

carried lyric poetry to its highest perfection. His ode on St. Cecilia's Day surpasses all the lyric compositions both of antiquity and modern times. He shines conspicuously as a satirist, possessing the keen and caustic wit, without the indelicacy, of Juvenal or Horace. His versions from Chaucer and Boccaccio are easy and spirited, and display a happy talent for poetical narrative. His numerous dramatic pieces, though exhibiting both invention and poetic beauty, are deficient in true passion, and in the just delineation of character.

13. It was not till the end of the sixteenth century that the drama in Europe began to furnish a rational entertainment. At that period, Lope de Vega and Calderona in Spain, and Shakspeare in England, produced those pieces, which, though irregular and stained with blemishes, are at this day the admiration of their countrymen. The Spanish plays of that age have been a rich mine for succeeding dramatists both among the French, Italians, and English. The merits of Shakspeare are familiar to every person of taste. Ignorant of the rules of his art, he is the pure child of nature, and thus exhibits often her caprices and absurdities; but these are redeemed by the most transcendent beauties. The old English drama is, with all its irregularities, incomparably superior to the modern, both in touching the passions and in displaying just views of human character. The persons are more discriminated by various and appropriate features, and the nicer shades of nearly resembling characters are thus more distinctly marked. The mixture of the comic and tragic in the same plot, though condemned by modern practice, is a great source of pleasure in the pieces of Shakspeare and his contemporaries; nor is there any thing in such a mixture, but what is consonant to nature. To a person of true taste, it will be found often to heighten, by contrast, the capital emotion to be excited.

14. The compositions for the French stage, in the

end of the seventeenth century, are strictly conformable to dramatic rules, and many of those pieces are models of a correct and polished taste. The morality of the French drama of that age and the next is in general purer than ours; but their pieces are deficient in the nice delineation of character, and in the power of exciting the passions. Corneille and Racine brought the French tragedy to its highest elevation, as Moliere the comedy. Corneille has more grandeur and sublimity than his rival, who excels him in the tender and pathetic. The comedies of Moliere, highly amusing in the present time, were more particularly valuable in the age when they were written, and had a sensible effect in correcting its prevailing follies; the pedantry of the ladies, the ignorance and quackery of the physicians, and the pride and arrogance of the French noblesse. The last of the eminent dramatists who adorned France in the seventeenth century was the elder Crebillon, who drew many sublime and impassioned scenes from the source of terror; and who, in all his works, was as eminently the friend of virtue as his worthless son has been the pander of vice.

15. The most eminent historians of the sixteenth century are, De Thou, Davila, and Machiavel. De Thou has written the annals of his own time, from 1545 to 1607, with great judgment, and in most elegant Latin composition. The history of Davila, the annals of the Civil Wars of France in the time of the Leagues, though the work of a partisan, is composed with no common degree of candour and impartiality. Machiavel wrote, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, the History of Florence, of which the style is classical and the matter well arranged, but too much interrupted by reflections and political discussions. In the seventeenth century Bentivoglio composed his History of the Civil Wars of Flanders, with the most accurate knowledge of his subject, perspicuity of narrative, and eloquence of style. Among the English historians in the begin-

ning of that period Raleigh is the most distinguished, though his History of the World is, in point of style, inferior to the judgment shewn in the arrangement of the matter. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, Clarendon's History of the Rebellion is a work of the highest merit, whether we consider the authenticity of its facts, the deep knowledge of human nature displayed in the delineation of the characters, or the grave and manly eloquence of the style. If, in the opposition of political opinions, he has been deemed too partial in the defence of his sovereign, even his adversaries have admitted his perfect integrity, and entire conviction of the rectitude of the cause which he supports.

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

THE Plan of the following CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE, though extremely simple, requires, as being a new one, a short explanation. In order to give a distinct View of the succession of Princes in the chief Empires or Kingdoms, without employing for that purpose different columns, which distracts too much the attention, and occupies unnecessarily a great deal of space, the Series of the Sovereigns of different Nations is distinguished in this Table by their being printed in different Typographical Characters. Thus, the Series of the Kings and Emperors of Rome is printed in Roman Capitals;—as

14. TIBERIUS, Emperor of Rome.

THE Series of the Popes is distinguishable by this character ¶ prefixed to each name;—as,

1513. ¶ Pope Leo X.

THAT of the Sultans of the Ottoman Empire, by a ⌣ prefixed to the name.

THE names of the Emperors of Germany are printed in Roman Small Capitals;—as

887. ARNOLD, Emperor of Germany.

THE Kings of England are marked by the Black Saxon Type;—as,

1066. William (the Conqueror) King of England.

THE Kings of Scotland are printed in *Italic Capitals*;—as

1390. *ROBERT III.* King of Scotland.

AND the Kings of France are distinguished by the usual *Italic* Type;—as,

1498. *Lewis XII. King of France.*

BY this method the Succession of the Sovereigns in the different Kingdoms is immediately distinguishable to the eye, as well as the Duration of their Reigns, while the intervening space is filled by the Remarkable Events that occurred in that period all over the World; and thus the connexion of General History is preserved unbroken.

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

Years before Christ.	
4004	The Creation of the World, according to the Hebrew text of the Scriptures.
	According to the version of the Septuagint 5872.
	According to the Samaritan version 4700.
2348	The universal Deluge.
2247	The building of Babel.—The dispersion of mankind, and the confusion of languages.
2217	Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and founded the Babylonish monarchy, and Assur to have built Nineveh, and founded the monarchy of Assyria.
2188	Menes (in Scripture Misraim) founds the monarchy of Egypt.
2084	The Shepherd Kings conquer Egypt.
2075	Semiramis queen of Assyria.
2040	Mœris king of Thebes and Memphis in Egypt.
1996	The birth of Abram.
1912	Chedarlaomer subdues several of the kings in Judea.
1897	Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed by fire from heaven.
1895	Isaac born.
1856	Inachus founds the kingdom of Argos in Greece.
1836	Jacob and Esau born.
1825	The Shepherd Kings abandon Egypt.
1823	Death of Abraham.
1796	The deluge of Ogyges in Attica.
1722	Sesostris or Rameses king of Egypt.
1635	Joseph dies in Egypt.
1582	The chronology of the Arundelian Marbles begins with this year.
1571	Moses born in Egypt.

B. C.

1556 Cecrops founds the kingdom of Athens.
1546 Scamander founds the kingdom of Troy.
1532 Judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly.
1529 The deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.
1522 The Council of the Amphictyons instituted.
1520 Corinth built.
1519 Cadmus builds Thebes, and introduces letters into Greece.
1513 The supposed era of the history of Job.
1511 Danaus came from Egypt into Greece.
1506 Erectheus or Erecthonius institutes the Panathenæan games.
1491 Moses brings the Israelites out of Egypt.
1453 The first Olympic games celebrated in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, written.
1451 The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua.
1438 Pandion king of Athens.
1415 The Book of Joshua supposed to be written by Phinehas the high-priest.
1406 Minos reigns in Crete, and gives laws to the Cretans.
1376 Sethos reigns in Egypt.
1322 Belus reigns in Babylon.
1267 Ninus reigns in Assyria.
1266 Œdipus marries his mother Jocasta, and reigns in Thebes.
1263 The Argonautic expedition. — (According to the Newtonian chronology 937.)
1257 Theseus unites the cities of Attica.
1255 The Israelites delivered by Deborah and Barak.
1252 Tyre, the capital of Phœnicia, built by the Sidonians.
1239 Latinus begins to reign in Italy.
1225 Siege of Thebes.—War between Etyocles and Polynices.
—— Eurysthenes and Procles kings of Lacedæmon.
1215 Second war of Thebes, or war of the Epigonoi.
1207 Gideon judge of Israel for forty years.
1202 Teucer built Salamis.
1193 The Trojan war begins.
1184 Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks.—(According to the Arundelian Marbles 1209.)

B. C.
1182 Æneas lands in Italy.
1155 Samson born.
1104 Return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus.
1099 Samuel delivers Israel.
—— Jephthah judge of Israel.
1079 Saul king of Israel.
1070 Medon first Archon of Athens.
1069 Codrus, king of Athens, devotes himself for his country.
1055 David king of Israel.
1004 Dedication of Solomon's Temple.
980 Rehoboam king of Israel.
971 Sesac or Sesostris king of Egypt.
923 Ahab and Jezabel reign over Israel.
914 Omri king of Israel.
889 Athalia, wife of Jehoram, usurps the throne of Judah.
886 Homer's Poems brought from Asia into Greece.
884 Lycurgus reforms the republic of Lacedæmon.
869 The city of Carthage built by Dido.
825 Jeroboam restores the glory of Israel in a reign of forty-one years.
820 Nineveh taken by Arbaces and Belesis, which finishes that kingdom.
806 Jonah preaches repentance to Nineveh.
776 The FIRST OLYMPIAD begins in this year.
769 Syracuse built by Archius of Corinth.
767 Sardanapalus king of Assyria.
760 The Ephori, popular magistrates, instituted at Lacedæmon.
757 Hylattes king of Lydia.
754 Decennial Archons elected at Athens.
752 THE FOUNDATION OF ROME BY ROMULUS.
751 Rape of the Sabines.
747 The Era of Nabonassar made use of by Ptolemy.
—— Xth Olympiad.
738 Candaules king of Lydia.
724 Hezekiah tenth king of Judah.
721 Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the ten tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the Israelitish kingdom.
718 Gyges king of Lydia.
715 NUMA POMPILIUS, second king of Rome.
711 Sennacherib, king of Assyria, invades Judæa.

B. C.

710 Dejoces king of Media.
708 Habakkuk prophesied.
703 Corcyra founded by the Corinthians.
700 XXth Olympiad.
696 Manasseh sixteenth king of Judah.
688 Judith kills Holofernes the Assyrian general.
684 Annual Archons elected at Athens.
681 Esarhaddon unites the kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria.
672 TULLUS HOSTILIUS, third king of Rome.
670 Psammeticus king of Egypt.
667 The combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.
660 XXXth Olympiad.
658 Byzantium founded by Pausanias king of Sparta.
—— Phraortes king of Media.
640 ANCUS MARTIUS, fourth king of Rome.
637 The forty years of Ezekiel began.
636 Periander tyrant of Corinth.
—— Nabopolassar, father of Nebuchadnezzar, begins to reign at Babylon.
624 Draco, archon and legislator of Athens.
620 XLth Olympiad.
616 TARQUINIUS PRISCUS, fifth king of Rome.
606 Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.
601 Battle between the Medes and Lydians, who are separated by a great eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales. (Newton Chron. 585.)
—— End of the Assyrian empire.—Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
600 Jeremiah prophesied.
599 Birth of Cyrus the Great.
594 Solon, archon and legislator of Athens.
580 Lth Olympiad.
578 SERVIUS TULLIUS, sixth king of Rome.
572 Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.
571 Phalaris tyrant of Agrigentum.
562 Comedies first exhibited at Athens by Thespis.
—— Crœsus reigns in Lydia.
551 Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, born.
550 Pisistratus tyrant of Athens.
548 The ancient Temple of Delphos burnt by the Pisistratidæ.

B. C.

540 LXth Olympiad.

538 Babylon taken by Cyrus.—End of the Babylonian empire.

536 Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia.—He puts an end to the Jewish captivity, which had lasted seventy years.

534 TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS, seventh king of Rome.

—— Daniel prophesied.

529 Death of Cyrus the Great.—Cambyses king of Persia.

—— Death of Pisistratus tyrant of Athens.

522 Darius, son of Hystaspes, king of Persia.

520 The Jews begin to build the second temple, which is finished in four years.

510 The Pisistratidæ expelled from Athens, and the Democracy restored.

509 The Tarquins expelled from Rome, and the regal government abolished.

508 The first alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.

504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians.

500 LXXth Olympiad.

498 The first Dictator created at Rome (Lartius).

497 Institution of the Saturnalia at Rome.

493 The port of Piræus built by the Athenians.

490 The battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades defeats the Persians.

—— The first tribunes of the people created at Rome.

488 Statues erected at Athens to Harmodius and Aristogiton.

486 Miltiades dies in prison.

—— Xerxes succeeds his father Darius in the kingdom of Persia.

485 Coriolanus banished from Rome.

483 Quæstors instituted at Rome.

—— Aristides banished from Athens by the Ostracism.

480 The Spartans, under Leonidas, cut to pieces at Thermopylæ.

—— Naval victory gained by the Greeks over the Persians at Salamis.

479 Attica laid waste, and Athens burnt, by Mardonius.

—— Victories over the Persians at Platæa and Mycale.

B. C.

479 Xerxes leaves Greece.
477 300 Fabii killed by the Veientes.
476 Themistocles rebuilds Athens.
—— Valerius triumphs over the Veientes and Sabines.
—— The Roman citizens numbered at 103,000.
—— A great eruption of Ætna.
—— Hiero king of Syracuse.
471 Volero, the Roman Tribune, obtains a law for the election of magistrates in the comitia held by tribes.
470 Cimon, son of Miltiades, defeats the Persian army and fleet in one day, at the mouth of the river Eurymedon.
469 Capua founded by the Tuscans.
464 Artaxerxes (Longimanus) king of Persia.
—— Cimon banished by the Ostracism.
463 Egypt revolts from the Persians.
462 The Terentian law proposed at Rome.
460 LXXXth Olympiad.
456 Cincinnatus Dictator at Rome.
—— The Ludi Sæculares first instituted at Rome.
455 Commencement of the Seventy Prophetical Weeks of Daniel.
453 The number of the tribunes of the people at Rome increased from five to ten.
452 The two books of Chronicles supposed to have been written at this time by Ezra.
451 Creation of the Decemviri at Rome, and compilation of the Laws of the Twelve Tables.
449 Peace between the Greeks and Persians concluded by Cimon, glorious for Greece.
— Death of Virginia, and abolition of the Decemvirate.
445 The law of Canulcius for the intermarriage of the Patricians and Plebeians at Rome.
—— Military tribunes created
437 The Censorship first instituted at Rome.
436 Pericles in high power at Athens.
432 Meton's nineteen years' Cycle of the Moon.
431 The Peloponnesian war begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.
430 The history of the Old Testament ends about this time

B. C.

430 Great Plague at Athens, eloquently described by Thucydides.
—— Malachi the last of the prophets.
428 Death of Pericles.
423 Darius Nothus king of Persia.
420 XCth Olympiad.
418 Disturbances at Rome on account of the Agrarian law.
414 The Athenians defeated before Syracuse.
413 Alcibiades, accused at Athens, flies to the Lacedæmonians.
412 A Council of 400 governs Athens.
405 Lysander defeats the Athenians at Ægos Potamos.
404 Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) king of Persia.
—— End of the Peloponnesian war.
403 Lysander takes Athens.—Government of the Thirty Tyrants.
401 The Younger Cyrus son of Darius Nothus defeated by his brother Artaxerxes, and killed.
—— Retreat of the 10,000 Greeks.
—— Persecution and death of Socrates.
—— Thrasybulus drives out the Thirty Tyrants, and delivers Athens.
399 A Lectisternium celebrated at Rome for the first time.
397 The Lake of Alba drained by the Romans.
396 Syracuse unsuccessfully besieged by the Carthaginians.
391 Marcus Furius Camillus dictator at Rome.—Veii taken.
387 Dishonourable peace of Antalcidas between the Spartans and Persians.
385 Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus.
382 Phæbidas, the Spartan, seizes the citadel of Thebes.
380 Pelopidas and Epaminondas deliver Thebes from the Lacedæmonians.
—— Cth Olympiad.
371 Battle of Leuctra, in which the Lacedæmonians are defeated by the Thebans under Epaminondas.
364 Pelopidas defeats the tyrant of Pheræa, but is killed in battle.
363 Battle of Mantinea, in which Epaminondas is killed.

B. C.

362 Curtius leaps into a gulf in the Forum at Rome.
361 Darius Ochus (or Artaxerxes III.) king of Persia.—(According to Blair, 358.)
358 War of the Allies against Athens.
—— Philip of Macedon takes Amphipolis, Pydna, and Potidea.
357 Dion overcomes the party of Dionysius at Syracuse.
356 Alexander the Great born at Pella in Macedonia.
—— The Temple of Diana, at Ephesus, burnt by Erostratus.
—— The Phocian or Sacred War begins in Greece.
—— Philip conquers the Thracians, Pæonians, and Illyrians.
350 Darius Ochus subdues Egypt.
348 Philip of Macedon takes Olynthus.
—— End of the Sacred War.
347 Dionysius restored at Syracuse, after an exile of ten years.
346 Philip admitted a member of the Amphictyonic Council.
343 Syracuse taken by Timoleon, and Dionysius the Tyrant finally banished.
—— The war between the Romans and Samnites, which led to the conquest of all Italy.
340 CXth Olympiad.
—— The Carthaginians defeated near Agrigentum.
—— P. Decius devotes himself to his country.
338 Battle of Cheronæa gained by Philip over the Athenians and Thebans.
337 Philip chosen Generalissimo of the Greeks.
336 Philip murdered by Pausanias.
—— Alexander the Great king of Macedon.
—— Alexander the Great destroys Thebes.
335 Darius III. (Codomanus) king of Persia.
—— Alexander chosen Generalissimo by the States of Greece.
334 Alexander defeats the Persians on the banks of the Granicus.
333 The Persians defeated by Alexander at Issus.
332 Alexander conquers Egypt, and takes Tyre.
331 Darius defeated by Alexander at Arbela.
330 Darius Codomanus killed.—End of the Persian empire.

B. C.

330 Alexander takes possession of Susa, and sets fire to the palace of Persepolis.

328 Alexander passes into India, defeats Porus, founds several cities, penetrates to the Ganges.

—— The voyage of Nearchus from the Indus to the Euphrates.

325 Papirius Cursor, dictator at Rome, triumphs over the Samnites.

324 Alexander the Great dies at Babylon, at the age of thirty-three.

321 The Samnites make the Roman army pass under the yoke at Caudium.

320 Ptolemy carries 100,000 Jews captives into Egypt.

317 Agathocles tyrant of Syracuse.

312 Era of the Seleucidæ.

311 Cassander, Lysimachus, and Ptolemy, conclude a peace with Antigonus.

304 Demetrius besieges Rhodes.

303 Demetrius restores the Greek cities to their liberty.

301 Battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus is defeated and slain.

—— Fabius Maximus and Valerius Corvus dictators.

300 Seleucus founds Antioch, Edessa, and Laodicea.

—— CXXth Olympiad.

298 Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes.

294 Seleucus resigns his wife Stratonice to his son Antiochus.

286 Law of Hortensius, by which the decrees of the people were allowed the same force as those of the Senate.

285 The astronomical era of Dionysius of Alexandria.

284 Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt.

283 The library of Alexandria founded.

281 Commencement of the Achean league.

280 Pyrrhus invades Italy.

—— Antiochus Soter king of Syria.

277 The translation of the Septuagint made by the order of Ptolemy Philadelphus.—(Playfair, 285.)

—— Antigonus Gonatas reigned in Macedon thirty-six years.

275 Pyrrhus unsuccessful against the Carthaginians in Sicily.

B C.

274 Pyrrhus, totally defeated by the Romans near Beneventum, evacuates Italy.
272 The Samnites finally subdued by the Romans.
266 Silver money is coined at Rome for the first time.
265 The citizens of Rome numbered at 292,224.
264 The first Punic war begins.—The Chronicle of Paros composed.
260 Provincial Quæstors instituted at Rome.
—— CXXXth Olympiad.
—— First naval victory obtained by the Romans under the consul Duilius.
255 Regulus defeated and taken prisoner by the Carthaginians under Xantippus.
253 Manasseh chosen High Priest of the Jews.
251 Great victory of Metellus over Asdrubal.
250 The Romans besiege Lilybœum,—are defeated by Hamilcar.
241 End of the first Punic war.
—— Attalus king of Pergamus succeeds Eumenes.
240 Comedies are first acted at Rome.
235 The Temple of Janus shut for the first time since the reign of Numa.
228 Hamilcar killed in Spain.
225 Great victory of the Romans over the Gauls.
220 CXLth Olympiad.
219 Hannibal takes Saguntum.
218 The second Punic war begins.
217 Hannibal defeats the Romans under Flaminius.
—— Fabius Maximus dictator.
216 Battle of Cannæ, in which the Romans are totally defeated by Hannibal.
212 Philip II. of Macedon defeats the Ætolians.
—— Marcellus takes Syracuse, after a siege of two years.
211 Capua surrenders to the Romans.
—— Antiochus the Great conquers Judea.
210 Asdrubal vanquished in Spain by the Scipios.
—— Publius Scipio sent into Spain takes New Carthage.
206 Philopœmen Prætor of the Achæans.
203 The Carthaginians recall Hannibal to Africa.
—— Sophonisba poisoned by Massinissa.
201 Syphax led in triumph to Rome by P. Scipio.

B. C.

197 Philip defeated by the Romans at Cynocephale.
196 The battle of Zama, and end of the second Punic war.
190 The Romans enter Asia, and defeat Antigonus at Magnesia.
183 The elder Cato censor at Rome.
180 CLth Olympiad.
173 War between the Romans and Perseus king of Macedon.
172 Antiochus defeats the generals of Ptolemy in Egypt.
170 Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jerusalem.
169 Terence's comedies performed at Rome.
167 Perseus defeated by Paulus Æmilius, and brought prisoner to Rome.—End of the kingdom of Macedon.
166 Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of Judea.
164 The Roman citizens numbered at 327,032.
149 The third Punic war begins.
147 Metellus defeats the Achæans.
146 Corinth taken by the consul Mummius.
—— Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.
140 CLXth Olympiad.
137 The Romans shamefully defeated by the Numantines.
135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
—— Antiochus besieges Jerusalem.
133 Tiberius Gracchus put to death.
—— Numantia taken. Pergamus becomes a Roman province.
121 Caius Gracchus killed.
113 Carbo the consul drives the Cimbri and Teutones out of Italy.
111 The Jugurthine war begins.
108 Marius defeats Jugurtha.
103 Jugurtha starved to death at Rome.
102 Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri.
100 CLXXth Olympiad.
91 The war of the Allies against the Romans.
90 Sylla defeats the Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, &c.
89 The Mithridatic war begins.
88 Civil war between Marius and Sylla. Sylla takes possession of Rome.
86 Mithridates king of Pontus defeated by Sylla.

B. C.

83 Sylla defeats Norbanus.—The Capitol burned.
82 Sylla perpetual Dictator. His horrible proscription.
80 Julius Cæsar makes his first campaign.
79 Cicero's first oration for Roscius.
78 Sylla resigns all power,—and dies.
77 The war of Sertorius.
72 Lucullus repeatedly defeats Mithridates, and reduces Pontus to a Roman province.
70 Crassus and Pompey chosen consuls at Rome.
63 Victories of Pompey.—He takes Jerusalem, and restores Hyrcanus to the government of Judea.
62 Catiline's conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.
61 Pompey enters Rome in triumph.
60 CLXXXth Olympiad.
59 The first Triumvirate: Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.
—— Cæsar proposes a new Agrarian law.
58 Clodius the tribune procures the banishment of Cicero.
57 Cæsar defeats Ariovistus in Gaul.
—— Cicero brought back from exile with high honour.
55 Cæsar lands in Britain for a short campaign.
54 Cæsar invades Britain a second time, and conquers a part of the country.
53 Crassus killed in Mesopotamia.
52 Milo defended by Cicero for the slaughter of Clodius.
49 Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.
— Commencement of the era of Antioch, October A.C. 49.
48 Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.
—— Pompey slain in Egypt.
—— The Alexandrian library of 400,000 vols. burnt.
46 Cato, besieged in Utica, kills himself.
45 The calendar reformed by Julius Cæsar, by introducing the solar year instead of the lunar. The first Julian year began 1st January 45 A.C.
44 Julius Cæsar killed in the senate-house.
—— Octavius, grand-nephew and heir of Julius Cæsar, comes to Rome, and is opposed at first by Antony.
43 Second triumvirate: Octavius, Mark Antony, and Lepidus.

B. C.

42 Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cassius are defeated.
40 Herod marries Mariamne, daughter of Hyrcanus, and obtains from the Romans the government of Judea.
34 Antony divides Armenia among the children of Cleopatra.
33 Mauritania reduced into a Roman province.
32 War declared by the Senate against Antony and Cleopatra.
31 Battle of Actium, and end of the Roman Commonwealth.
—— OCTAVIUS emperor of Rome.
30 Death of Mark Antony and Cleopatra. Alexandria taken by Octavius.
27 Octavius receives the title of Augustus.
23 Death of Marcellus.—Agrippa in Spain.
20 CXCth Olympiad.
—— Porus king of India sends an embassy to Augustus.
17 Augustus revives the secular games.
15 The Rhæti and Vindelici defeated by Drusus.
10 The Temple of Janus shut by Augustus for a short time.
8 Augustus corrects an error of the Roman calendar.
—— Death of Mecænas.
5 Augustus ordains a census of all the people in the Roman empire.
4 JESUS CHRIST is born four years before the commencement of the vulgar era.

A. D.

9 The Roman legions, under Varus, cut to pieces in Germany.
—— Ovid the poet banished to Tomos.
14 TIBERIUS emperor of Rome
19 Germanicus dies at Antioch.
—— Tiberius banishes the Jews from Rome.
21 CCth Olympiad.
25 CCIst Olympiad.—Here the OLYMPIADS end.
26 John the Baptist preaches in Judea the coming of the Messiah.
27 Tiberius retires to the island of Capreæ.
—— Pilate made governor of Judea.
31 Sejanus disgraced, and put to death by Tiberius.

A. D.

33 ¶ St. Peter first pope.
—— JESUS CHRIST is crucified.
35 The conversion of St. Paul.
37 CALIGULA emperor of Rome.
39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
40 The name of Christians first given to the disciples of Christ at Antioch.
41 CLAUDIUS emperor of Rome.
—— Herod persecutes the Christians, and imprisons Peter.
42 Sergius Paulus, proconsul, converted by St. Paul.
43 Expedition of Claudius into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
45 Vespasian in Britain.
47 The *Ludi Sæculares* performed at Rome.
48 Messalina put to death by Claudius, who marries Agrippina, the mother of Nero.
50 St. Paul preaches in the Areopagus at Athens.
51 Caractacus the British king is carried prisoner to Rome.
54 NERO emperor of Rome.
55 Britannicus poisoned by Nero.
59 Nero puts to death his mother Agrippina.
60 Suetonius Paulinus defeats the Britons.
61 The Britons, under queen Boadicea, defeat the Romans.
64 The first persecution of the Christians raised by Nero.
—— Rome set on fire by Nero.
66 Bareas Soranus and Thracea Pætus put to death by Nero.
—— ¶ Pope Linus.
67 Massacre of the Jews by Florus, at Cæsarea, Ptolemais, and Alexandria.
—— St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
—— Josephus, the Jewish historian, governor of Galilee.
—— ¶ Pope St. Clement.
68 GALBA emperor of Rome.
69 OTHO emperor of Rome.
—— VITELLIUS emperor of Rome.
70 VESPASIAN emperor of Rome.
—— Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.
77 ¶ Pope St. Cletus.

A. D.

78 A great pestilence at Rome, 10,000 dying in one day.
79 TITUS emperor of Rome.
—— Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.
80 Conquests of Agricola in Britain.
81 DOMITIAN emperor of Rome.
83 ¶ Pope Anacletus.
89 Apollonius of Tyanea defends himself before Domitian against an accusation of treason.
95 Dreadful persecutions of the Christians at Rome, and in the provinces.
—— St. John writes his Apocalypse.
—— St. John writes his Gospel.
96 NERVA emperor of Rome.
—— ¶ Pope Evaristus.
98 TRAJAN emperor of Rome.
—— Trajan forbids the Christian Assemblies.
100
103 The Dacians subdued by Trajan.
107 Trajan's victories in Asia.
108 St. Ignatius devoured by wild beasts at Rome.
—— ¶ Pope Alexander I.
115 The Jews in Cyrene murder 200,000 Greeks and Romans.
117 ¶ Pope Sixtus I.
118 ADRIAN emperor of Rome.
—— Persecution of the Christians renewed by Adrian, but afterwards suspended.
120 Adrian's wall built across the island of Britain.
127 ¶ Pope Telesphorus.
131 Adrian visits Egypt and Syria.
132 Adrian publishes his perpetual edict or code of the laws.
135 The Romans destroyed 580,000 Jews in Judea.
137 Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem, by the name of Ælia Capitolina.
138 ¶ Pope Hyginus.
—— ANTONINUS PIUS emperor of Rome.
139 Lollius Urbicus, Roman governor of Britain, pushes his conquests to the Murray Frith.
—— The wall of Antoninus built between Forth and Clyde.
142 ¶ Pope Pius I.

A. D.

150 ¶ Pope Anicetus.
154 Justin Martyr publishes his Apology for the Christians.
161 MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS, and LUCIUS VERUS, emperors of Rome.
162 ¶ Pope Soter.
167 Polycarp and Pionices suffered martyrdom in Asia.
169 War with the Marcomanni.
171 Death of Verus. Marcus Aurelius sole emperor.
—— ¶ Pope Eleutherius.
177 Persecution of the Christians at Lyons.
180 COMMODUS emperor of Rome.
185 ¶ Pope Victor I.
189 The Saracens defeat the Romans.—This people for the first time mentioned in history.
193 PERTINAX emperor of Rome. DIDIUS JULIANUS purchases the empire.
— PESCENNIUS NIGER declared emperor in the East.
— - SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS emperor of Rome.
194 Niger defeated by Severus, and put to death.
195 Byzantium besieged, surrenders to Severus.
196 ALBINUS proclaimed emperor in Britain.
197 Albinus defeated by Severus, he kills himself.
—— ¶ Pope Zephyrinus.
200
202 The fifth persecution against the Christians, principally in Egypt.
203 The Scots converted to Christianity by the preaching of Marcus and Dionysius.
208 Severus, with his sons Caracalla and Geta, in Britain.
209 The Caledonians repulsed, and a wall built between the rivers Forth and Clyde.
211 CARACALLA and GETA emperors of Rome,
212 Caracalla murders Geta.
217 Caracalla put to death.
—— MACRINUS emperor of Rome.
—— ¶ Pope Calixtus I.
218 HELIOGABALUS emperor of Rome.
222 ALEXANDER SEVERUS emperor of Rome.
- —— A tribute paid by the Romans to the Goths.
— — ¶ Pope Urban I.

A. D.

226 The Persians totally defeated by Alexander Severus.
230 ¶ Pope Pontianus.
235 ¶ Pope Anterus.
—— MAXIMINUS assassinates Alexander Severus, and is proclaimed emperor of Rome.
236 The sixth persecution of the Christians.
—— ¶ Pope Fabianus.
237 Maximinus defeats the Dacians and Sarmatians.
238 MAXIMUS and BALBINUS emperors of Rome.
—— GORDIAN emperor of Rome.
242 Gordian defeats the Persians under Sapor.
244 PHILIP THE ARABIAN emperor of Rome.
248 The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.—Pompey's theatre burned.
—— St. Cyprian elected Bishop of Carthage.
249 DECIUS emperor of Rome.
250 The seventh persecution of the Christians under Decius.
—— ¶ Pope St. Cornelius.
251 VIBIUS VOLUSIANUS emperor of Rome.
—— GALLUS emperor of Rome.
252 ¶ Pope Lucius I.
253 The Goths, Burgundians, &c. make an irruption into Mœsia and Pannonia.
254 VALERIANUS emperor of Rome.
—— ¶ Pope Stephen I.
257 The eighth persecution of the Christians.
—— ¶ Pope Sixtus II.
259 The Persians ravage Syria
—— ¶ Pope Dionysius.
260 GALLIENUS emperor of Rome.
—— The Temple of Diana at Ephesus burned.
261 Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cæsarea.
267 The Heruli invade and ravage Greece.
268 CLAUDIUS II. emperor of Rome.
269 The Goths and Heruli, to the number of 320,000 defeated by Claudius.
—— ¶ Pope Felix I.
270 AURELIAN emperor of Rome.
271 The Alemanni and Marcomanni ravage the empire.
272 The ninth persecution of the Christians.

A. D.

273 Zenobia queen of Palmyra defeated by Aurelian at Edessa.
274 ¶ Pope Eutychianus.
275 TACITUS emperor of Rome.
276 FLORIANUS emperor of Rome.
277 PROBUS emperor of Rome.
282 CARUS emperor of Rome—defeats the Quadi and Sarmatians.
—— CARINUS—NUMERIANUS, emperors of Rome.
283 ¶ Pope Caius.
—— Fingal king of Morven died.
284 DIOCLETIAN emperor of Rome.
286 The empire attacked by the northern nations.
—— Carausius usurps the government of Britain, and reigns seven years.
290 The Gregorian and Hermogenian Codes published.
292 Partition of the empire by Diocletian between two Emperors and two Cæsars.
295 ¶ Pope Marcellinus.
—— Alexandria in Egypt taken by Diocletian.
300
302 The tenth persecution of the Christians.
304 Pope Marcellus.
—— Resignation of Diocletian and Maximian.
—— GALERIUS and CONSTANTIUS emperors of Rome.
305 MAXIMINUS emperor of Rome.
306 CONSTANTINE THE GREAT emperor of Rome —stops the persecution of the Christians.
310 ¶ Pope Eusebius.
—— ¶ Pope Melchiades.
313 Edict of Milan published by Constantine—Christianity tolerated through the empire.
314 ¶ Pope Sylvester.
325 Constantine abolishes the combats of Gladiators.
—— Constantine assembles the first General Council at Nice, where the doctrines of Arius are condemned.
326 St. Athanasius, bishop of Alexandria, introduces Monachism in the Roman empire.
329 Constantine removes the seat of empire to Constantinople.

A. D.

336 ¶ Pope Marcus.
337 ¶ Pope Julius I.
—— Death of Constantine.—The empire divided among his three sons.
—— CONSTANTINE II., CONSTANS, and CONSTANTIUS, emperors of Rome.
350 Constans murdered.—Magnentius assumes the purple.
352 ¶ Pope Liberius.
356 ¶ Pope Felix I.
357 The Germans defeated by Julian at Strasburgh.
358 ¶ Pope Felix II.
359 Council of Rimini held.
361 JULIAN emperor of Rome—abjures Christianity, and is elected Pontifex Maximus.
—— Julian attempts fruitlessly to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem.
363 JOVIAN emperor of Rome.
364 VALENTINIAN emperor of the West.—VALENS emperor of the East.
366 ¶ Pope Damasus.
367 GRATIAN emperor of the West.
375 VALENTINIAN II. emperor of the West.
376 Valens allows the Goths to settle in Thrace.
378 The Goths advance to the gates of Constantinople. —Death of Valens.
379 THEODOSIUS THE GREAT emperor of the East.
381 Second General Council held at Constantinople.
383 The Huns overrun Mesopotamia,—are defeated by the Goths.
384 Symmachus pleads the cause of Paganism against St. Ambrose in the senate.
385 ¶ Pope Syricius.
392 THEODOSIUS emperor of the West and East.
395 ARCADIUS emperor of the East, and HONORIUS emperor of the West.
—— The Huns invade the Eastern provinces.
397 St. Chrysostom chosen patriarch of Constantinople.
399 ¶ Pope Anastasius.
—— Gainas the Goth obtains honours from Arcadius.
400
—— Alaric the Goth ravages Italy.
401 ¶ Pope Innocent I.

A. D.

403 Stilicho, general of Honorius, defeats Alaric near Pollentia.

404 *FERGUS I.* king of Scotland supposed to have begun his reign.

406 The Vandals, Alans, &c., invade France and Spain.

408 THEODOSIUS II. emperor of the East.

410 Rome sacked and burned by Alaric.—Death of Alaric.

411 The Vandals settled in Spain.

416 The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.

—— The Pelagian Heresy condemned by the bishops of Africa.

417 ¶ Pope Zozimus.

418 ¶ Pope Boniface I.

420 *Pharamond first king of the Franks* supposed to have begun his reign.

422 ¶ Pope Cælestinus.

424 VALENTINIAN III. emperor of the West.

426 The Romans withdraw finally from Britain.

428 Ætius, the Roman general, defeats the Franks and Goths.

431 The third General Council held at Ephesus.

432 ¶ Pope Sixtus III.

435 The Theodosian Code published.

439 Genseric the Vandal invades and plunders Italy.

—— Eudosia the empress, wife of Theodosius, retires to Jerusalem.

—— Carthage taken by the Vandals.--Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa

440 ¶ Pope Leo the Great.

442 Theodosius forced to make a disgraceful peace with Attila the Hun.

—— Attila causes his brother Bleda to be murdered.

445 The Britons in vain solicit the Romans to assist them against the Picts and Scots.

—— Attila the Hun overruns Illyrium, Thrace, Dacia, Mœsia, and Scythia.

448 The Romans engage to pay a heavy tribute of gold to Attila.

449 *Merovæus king of the Franks.*

450 MARCIAN emperor of the East.

—— Attila ravages Germany and France.

A. D.

451 Theodoric king of the Visigoths killed in battle.—The Huns defeated by Ætius.

—— The Saxons arrive in Britain under Hengist and Horsa.

—— The fourth General Council held at Chalcedon.

452 Foundation of the city of Venice.

455 PETRONIUS MAXIMUS emperor of the West.

—— AVITUS emperor of the West.

—— Rome taken and plundered by Genseric the Vandal.

456 *Childerick king of the Franks.*

457 LEO THE GREAT emperor of the East.

—— MAJORIANUS emperor of the West.

461 SEVERUS emperor of the West, raised by Ricimer.

—— ¶ Pope Hilarius.

467 ANATHEMIUS emperor of the West.

468 Euric king of the Visigoths drives the Romans out of Spain.

—— ¶ Pope Simplicius.

470 Ælla the Saxon takes possession of the kingdom of Sussex.

471 Ælla defeats all the British princes.

472 Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, seen from Constantinople.

—— OLYBIUS emperor of the West.

473 GLYCERIUS emperor of the West, degraded and stripped by

474 JULIUS NEPOS emperor of the West.

—— ZENO emperor of the East.

475 AUGUSTULUS ROMULUS emperor of the West, raised by his father Orestes, general to Nepos.

476 Orestes put to death by Odoacer king of the Heruli.

—— Rome taken by Odoacer, now king of Italy.

—— EXTINCTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE of the Romans, 507 years from the battle of Actium, and 1224 from the building of Rome.

481 *Clovis king of the Franks.*

—— Zeno makes Theodoric the Ostrogoth his general, and creates him consul.

483 ¶ Pope Felix III.

485 Battle of Soissons gained by Clovis.

488 Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, entirely defeats Odoacer, and is acknowledged king of Italy by the emperor Zeno.

A. D.

490 The Burgundians, under Gondebald, ravage Italy.
—— Ireland, called the Isle of Saints, famous for its schools.
491 ANASTASIUS emperor of the East.
493 Odoacer put to death by Theodoric.
496 ¶ Pope Anastasius II.
497 Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.
498 ¶ Pope Symmachus.
499 Alliance between Clovis and Theodoric the Great.
500
—— Gondebald, the Burgundian, becomes tributary to Clovis.
501 The Burgundian laws published by Gondebald.
502 Cabades king of Persia ravages part of the Eastern empire.
504 The Eastern empire makes peace with Cabades.
507 Clovis defeats Alaric, the Visigoth, and receives a congratulatory embassy, with a diadem, from Anastatius.
508 Theodoric the Great defeats Clovis in the battle of Arles, and then makes peace with him.
—— Arthur chosen Pendragon, or sovereign of the Cumbrian British kingdom.
510 Clovis makes Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.
511 Death of Clovis.—Division of his kingdom among his four sons.
—— *Childebert, Thierry, Clotaire, and Clodomir, kings of the Franks.*
512 The Heruli allowed by Anastasius to settle in Thrace.
514 ¶ Pope Hormisdas.
515 Arthur king of the Britons supposed to have begun his reign.
516 The computation of Time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk.
517 The Getæ ravage Illyrium, Macedonia, and Epirus.
518 JUSTIN I. emperor of the East, raised from obscurity.
519 Justin restores the Orthodox bishops, and condemns the Eutychians.
—— Cabades king of Persia proposes that Justin should adopt his son Cosroes, and makes war on a refusal.

A. D.

523 ¶ Pope John I.

525 The Arian bishops deposed by Justin,—highly resented by Theodoric.

—— Antioch and many other cities almost destroyed by an earthquake, but rebuilt by Justin.—He adopts his nephew Justinian.

526 Theodoric puts to death Boethius and Symmachus.

—— ¶ Pope Felix IV.

527 JUSTINIAN I. emperor of the East.

529 Belisarius, general of Justinian, defeats the Persians.

—— The Books of the Civil Law published by Justinian.

530 ¶ Pope Boniface II.

532 Justinian congratulates Cosroes on succeeding to the throne of Persia, and concludes a perpetual peace with him.

—— Great insurrection at Constantinople quelled with prodigious slaughter by Belisarius.

533 Athalaric king of the Ostrogoths dying, is succeeded by his mother Amalasonta.

—— ¶ Pope John II.

534 *Theodobert king of Metz.*

—— Belisarius defeats Gelimer and the Vandals in Africa.

535 ¶ Pope Agapetus.

536 ¶ Pope Sylvester.

537 Belisarius subdues the Ostrogoths in Italy, and takes Rome.

538 ¶ Pope Vigilius.

540 Belisarius refuses to accept the crown of Italy.

542 Arthur, king of the Cumbrian Britons, killed in the battle of Camlan.

543 Totila, the Goth, recovers Italy from the Romans.

547 Totila takes and plunders Rome.

—— Ida the Saxon lands at Flamborough, subdues the country from the Humber to the Forth, and founds the Northumbrian kingdom.

548 *Theodebald king of Metz.*

549 Rome retaken by Belisarius.

550 Commencement of the kingdom of Poland under Lechus.

—— Rome recovered by Totila.

551 The manufacture of silk introduced into Europe.

A. D.

553 Totila defeated by Narses the Eunuch and put to death.

555 ¶ Pope Pelágius I.

558 The Huns breaking into Thrace, are defeated by Belisarius.

559 Belisarius degraded, and ungratefully used by Justinian.

—— *Clotaire sole king of France.*

560 ¶ Pope John III.

—— Belisarius restored to his honours and command.

562 *Caribert, Gontran, Sigebert, and Chilperic, kings of France.*

565 JUSTIN II. emperor of the East.

—— The Picts converted to Christianity by St. Columba.

566 Narses, recalled from Italy, invites the Lombards to take possession of the country.

568 Italy conquered by the Lombards.

571 Birth of Mahomet the false prophet.

574 ¶ Pope Benedict I.

578 TIBERIUS II. emperor of the East.

—— ¶ Pope Pelagius II.

580 The Latin tongue ceases to be spoken in Italy about this time.

582 MAURICE emperor of the East.

584 *Clotaire II. king of Soissons.*

590 Antioch again destroyed, with 30,000 inhabitants, by an earthquake.

—— ¶ Pope Gregory the Great.

596 *Thierry II. and Theodobert II. kings of Paris and Austrasia.*

—— Augustine the Monk converts the Saxons to Christianity.

600

602 PHOCAS, emperor of the East, acknowledges the supremacy of the popes.

604 ¶ Pope Sabinianus.

607 ¶ Pope Boniface III.

—— The pantheon at Rome dedicated to God, the Virgin, and all the Saints.

608 ¶ Pope Boniface IV.

609 The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.

611 HERACLIUS emperor of the East.

A. D.

613 The French Maires du Palais first introduced by Clotaire as Regents.

614 *Clotaire II. sole king of France.*

—— Queen Brunechilda, accused of numberless crimes, is put to death by Clotaire II.

615 ¶ Pope Deus-dedit.

616 Jerusalem taken by the Persians under Cosroes II.

618 ¶ Pope Boniface V.

622 Era of the Hegyra, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.

625 ¶ Pope Honorius I.

—— The Persians under Cosroes II. with the Huns, Abari, and Sclavonians, besiege Constantinople.

628 *Dagobert and Charibert kings of France.*

632 Abubeker succeeds Mahomet as caliph of the Saracens.

633 Abubeker dies, and is succeeded by Omar in the caliphate.

636 Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it 463 years.

638 *Sigebert II. and Clovis II. kings of France.*

640 ¶ Pope Severinus.

—— ¶ Pope John IV.

—— The library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burnt by the Saracens.

641 CONSTANTINE, emperor of the East for a few months, poisoned by his stepmother.

—— HERACLIONAS and TIBERIUS III. emperors of the East.

642 CONSTANS, son of Constantine, emperor of the East.

—— ¶ Pope Theodorus.

645 Otman succeeds Omar in the caliphate.

648 Cyprus taken by the Saracens under Mawia.

649 ¶ Pope Martin I.

653 The Saracens take Rhodes, and destroy the Colossus.

654 *Childeric II. king of Austrasia.*

—— ¶ Pope Eugenius I.

655 Ali caliph of Arabia.—Mawia caliph of Egypt.

657 ¶ Pope Vitalianus.

658 The Saracens obtain peace of the emperor Constans, and agree to pay a yearly tribute.

A. D.

668 CONSTANTIUS V. (Pogonatus) emperor of the East.

669 Sicily ravaged by the Saracens.

672 ¶ Pope Adeodatus.

—— The Saracens ineffectually besiege Constantinople. —Their fleet destroyed by the Greek fire used by Callinicus.

675 The Saracens attempt to land in Spain, but are repulsed by Wamba king of the Visigoths.

676 ¶ Pope Donus.

679 *Thierry IV. king of all France.*

—— ¶ Pope Agatho.

680 The sixth General or Œcumenical Council of Constantinople.

682 ¶ Pope Leo II.

684 ¶ Pope Benedict II.

685 ¶ Pope John V.

—— JUSTINIAN II. emperor of the East.

—— The Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.

—— Egfrid the Saxon penetrates northward to Angus, but is slain by Bredei the Pictish king.

686 ¶ Pope Conon.

—— Ceadwalla king of Wessex subdues Sussex and Kent.

687 ¶ Pope Sergius.

690 Pepin Heristel, *Maire du Palais,* defeats Thierry and acquires the chief power in France.

692 *Clovis III. king of France.*

694 Justinian II. dethroned, mutilated, and banished by Leontius.

695 *Childebert III. king of France.*

—— LEONTIUS emperor of the East,—dethroned and mutilated by

697 APSIMAR or TIBERIUS emperor of the East.

699 The Saracens defeated by John the Patrician.

700

—— The Saracens again defeated with great slaughter by Heraclius, brother of Tiberius.

701 ¶ Pope John VI.

704 Justinian II. escapes from prison, defeats Tiberius, and is restored to the throne.

707 Justinian II. defeated by the Bulgarians.

A. D.

708 ¶ Pope Sisinnius.
—— ¶ Pope Constantine.
711 PHILIPPICUS BARDANES emperor of the East.
—— *Dagobert III. king of France.*
713 ANASTASIUS II. emperor of the East.
—— Spain conquered by the Saracens under Muca, the general of the caliph Walid.
714 ¶ Pope Gregory II.
—— THEODOSIUS III. emperor of the East.
—— Charles Martel, *Maire du Palais*, governs all France for twenty-six years.
716 *Childeric II. king of France.*
—— LEO (the Isaurian) emperor of the East.
720 Omar II. besieges Constantinople without success.
—— *Thierry IV. king of France.*
726 Leo forbids the worship of images, which occasions a great rebellion of his subjects, the pope defending the practice.
728 Leo orders pope Gregory to be seized, and sent to Constantinople; but the order is frustrated, and Leo confiscates the imperial domains of Sicily and Calabria.
729 The Saracens ravage Gallia Narbonnensis.
731 ¶ Pope Gregory III.
732 Charles Martel defeats the Saracens between Tours and Poictiers.
736 Leo persecutes the monks.
737 Death of Pelagius who preserved the Christian monarchy in Asturia.
740 The dutchy of Spoleto seized by the Normans.—Recovered by the pope.
741 ¶ Pope Zachary.
742 *Childeric III. king of France.*
— CONSTANTINE (Copronymus) emperor of the East.—Enemy to images and saint-worship.
743 Constantine defeats and puts to death Artabazdus, who had seized Constantinople.
745 Constantine destroys the fleet of the Saracens.
749 The race of the Abassidæ become caliphs of the Saracens.
751 *Pepin (le Bref) king of France, founder of the second or Carlovingian race.*
752 ¶ Pope Stephen III.

A. D.

753 Astolphus king of the Lombards erects the dukedom of Ravenna, and claims from the pope the dukedom of Rome.

754 Pope Stephen requests the assistance of Pepin against the Lombards.

—— Pepin invades Italy, and strips Astolphus of his new possessions, conferring them on the pope as a temporal sovereignty.

—— Almanzor caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.

756 Desiderius or Didier proclaimed king of the Lombards, with the pope's consent.

—— Abdalrahman I. takes the title of king of Cordova, and is the founder of the splendid dominion of the Moors in Spain.

757 ¶ Pope Paul I. renews the alliance with Desiderius.

759 ¶ Pope Stephen III. quarrels with Desiderius.

762 Almanzor builds Bagdat, and makes it the seat of the empire of the caliphs.

767 The Turks ravage Asia Minor.

768 *Charles (the Great) and Carloman kings of France.*

—— ¶ Pope Stephen IV.

770 Constantine dissolves the monasteries in the East.

772 *Charlemagne sole monarch of France.*

—— Charlemagne makes war against the Saxons.

—— ¶ Pope Adrian I.

774 Charlemagne defeats Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards which had subsisted 206 years.

775 LEO IV. emperor of the East.

778 Battle of Roncezvalles between the Christians and Moors in Spain, where Rolando is killed.

779 Charlemagne conquers Navarre and Sardinia.

81 CONSTANTINE (Porphyrogenitus) emperor of the East.

—— Irene, empress, regent in her son's minority, keeps him in entire subjection.

—— Irene re-establishes the worship of images.

785 Charlemagne subdues the Saxons.

—— Haroun Alraschid caliph of the Saracens.

- -. Haroun Alraschid invades and ravages a part of the empire.

A. D.

786 Constantine assumes the government of the empire, and imprisons his mother.

787 The Danes under their pirate chiefs, or Vikingr, for the first time, land in England.

—— The seventh General Council, or second of Nice, is held.

788 Irene puts to death her son Constantine, and is proclaimed sole empress.

793 Irene proposes to marry Charlemagne, which being disapproved of by her subjects, she is dethroned, and confined to a monastery.

—— NICEPHORUS emperor of the East.—Here begins the Lower or Greek empire.

794 Charlemagne defeats and utterly extirpates the Huns.

795 ¶ Pope Leo III.

797 The Saracens ravage Cappadocia, Cyprus, Rhodes, &c.

—— Nicephorus associates his son Saturacius in the empire.

800

—— NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST.—Charlemagne crowned emperor at Rome.

807 Haroun Alraschid courts the alliance of Charlemagne.

811 MICHAEL (Curopalates) emperor of the East.

813 LEO (the Armenian) emperor of the East.

—— Almamon, caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.

814 *Lewis (le Débonnaire) emperor and king of France*

816 The Eastern Empire ravaged by earthquakes, famine, conflagrations, &c.

—— ¶ Pope Stephen V.

817 ¶ Pope Pascal I.

—— Lewis (le Déb.) divides the empire among his sons.

821 MICHAEL (Balbus or the Stammerer) emperor of the East.

824 ¶ Pope Eugene II.

827 Egbert unites the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy.—Beginning of the kingdom of England.

—— ¶ Pope Valentine.

828 ¶ Pope Gregory IV.

829 THEOPHILUS emperor of the East.

A. D.

838 Ethelwolf king of England.
—— The Scots under Kenneth entirely subdue the Picts.
840 LOTHARIUS emperor of Germany.
—— *Charles (the Bald) king of France.*
841 Lotharius defeated by his two brothers in the battle of Fontenai, and deposed.
842 LEWIS (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.
—— MICHAEL III. emperor of the East.
843 The Normans plunder the city of Rouen.
—— Kenneth M'Alpin king of Scots subdues the Pictish kingdom, and unites it to the Scottish.
844 ¶ Pope Sergius III.
845 The Normans plunder Hamburgh, and penetrate into Germany.
847 ¶ Pope Leo IV.
848 The Venetian fleet destroyed by the Saracens.
851 ¶ Pope Joan, supposed to have filled the papal chair for two years.
—— BASILIUS associated emperor of the East.
855 LEWIS II. emperor of Germany.
857 Ethelbald and Ethelbert kings of England.
858 ¶ Pope Nicholas I.
866 Ethelred king of England.
867 The Danes ravage England.
—— Basilius sole emperor of the East.
—— ¶ Pope Adrian II.
—— Photius, patriarch of Constantinople, excommunicates pope Adrian.
872 Alfred (the Great) king of England.
—— ¶ Pope John VIII.
875 CHARLES (the Bald) emperor of Germany.
—— Harold Harfager unites the provinces of Norway, conquers Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, and appoints Earls to govern them.
877 LEWIS (the Stammerer) emperor of Germany and *king of France.*
879 *Lewis III. and Carloman kings of France.*
—— The kingdom of Arles begins.
880 CHARLES (the Gross) emperor of Germany and *king of France.*
—— Ravages of the Normans in France.
882 ¶ Pope Marinus.
884 ¶ Pope Adrian III.

A. D.

886 LEO (the Philosopher) emperor of the East.
—— The University of Oxford founded by Alfred.
887 ARNOLD emperor of Germany.
—— The Normans besiege Paris, which is gallantly defended by bishop Goselin and count Eudes.
888 *Eudes or Odo king of France.*
890 Alfred the Great composes his code of Laws, and divides England into Counties, Hundreds, and Tithings.
891 ¶ Pope Formosus.
896 ¶ Pope Stephen VII.
897 ¶ Pope John IX.
898 *Charles III. (the Simple) king of France.*
900
—— ¶ Pope Benedict IV.
—— LEWIS IV. emperor of Germany.
901 Edward (the Elder) succeeds Alfred as king of England.
904 ¶ Pope Leo V.
905 ¶ Pope Sergius III.
911 CONRAD I. emperor of Germany.
—— CONSTANTINE IX. emperor of the East.
912 The Normans are established in Normandy under Rollo.
913 ¶ Pope Anastasius.
914 ¶ Pope Landon.
915 CONSTANTINE and ROMANUS emperors of the East.
—— ¶ Pope John X.
—— The University of Cambridge founded by Edward the Elder.
920 HENRY (the Fowler) emperor of Germany.
923 *Rodolph king of France.*
928 Athelstan king of England.
—— ¶ Pope Leo VI.
929 ¶ Pope Stephen VIII.
931 ¶ Pope John XI.
—— Rise of the republic of Pisa.
—— City of Geneva overrun by the Saracens.
936 OTHO (the Great) emperor of Germany.
—— ¶ Pope Leo VII.
—— *Lewis IV. (d'Outremer) king of France.*
939 ¶ Pope Stephen IX.

A.D.

940 Howel-Dha king of Wales, an eminent lawgiver.
941 Edmund I. king of England.
943 ¶ Pope Marinus XIII.
946 ¶ Pope Agapet.
948 Edred king of England.
954 *Lotharius king of France.*
955 Edwy king of England.
956 ¶ Pope John XII.
959 ROMANUS II. emperor of the East.
—— Edgar king of England.
963 ¶ Pope Leo VIII.
—— NICEPHORUS PHOCAS emperor of the East.
964 Otho the Great conquers Italy.
965 ¶ Pope John XIII.
967 Antioch recovered from the Saracens by Nicephorus.
969 JOHN ZEMISSES emperor of the East.
972 ¶ Pope Benedict VI.
973 Otho II. emperor of Germany.
974 ¶ Pope Boniface VII.
975 Kenneth III. annexes the Britons of Strathcluyd to the Scottish kingdom.
—— ¶ Pope Benedict VII.
—— BASILIUS and CONSTANTINE X. emperors of the East.
976 Edward II. king of England.
978 Ethelred II. king of England.
983 Otho III. emperor of Germany.
984 ¶ Pope John XIV.
986 ¶ Pope John XV.
—— *Lewis V. (le Fainéant) king of France.*
987 *Hugh Capet, king of France, founder of the third race of the French kings.*
991 The Arabic numeral ciphers first introduced into Europe.
996 *Robert (the Wise) king of France.*
—— ¶ Pope Gregory V.
999 ¶ Pope Sylvester II.
1000
1002 Henry II. emperor of Germany.
—— Great massacre of the Danes by Ethelred king of England.

A. D.
1003 ¶ Pope John XVI.
—— ¶ Pope John XVII.
1004 ¶ Pope John XVIII.
1005 Churches first built in the Gothic style.
1009 ¶ Pope Sergius IV.
1012 ¶ Pope Benedict VIII.
1013 The Danes, under Sueno, get possession of England.
1015 The Manichean doctrines prevalent in France and Italy.
1016 Edmund II. (Ironside) king of England.
—— Six battles fought with the Danes under Canute in England.
1017 Canute the Dane (the Great) king of England.
1018 The Normans invade Italy.
1024 ¶ Pope John XIX. or XX.
—— Conrad II. (the Salic) emperor of Germany.
1025 Musical characters invented by Guido Aretino.
1028 ROMANUS ARGYRUS emperor of the East.
1031 *Henry I. king of France.*
1033 ¶ Pope Benedict IX.
1034 MICHAEL IV. emperor of the East.
1036 Harold (Harefoot) king of England.
1039 Henry III. emperor of Germany.
—— Canute II. or Hardicanute king of England.
—— Macbeth usurps the throne of Scotland, by the murder of Duncan.
1041 Edward III. (The Confessor) King of England, restores the Saxon line.
—— MICHAEL (Calaphales) emperor of the East.
1042 CONSTANTINE (Monomachus) emperor of the East.
1043 The Turks, under Tangrolipix, subdue Persia.
1045 ¶ Pope Gregory VI.
1046 ¶ Pope Clement II.
1048 ¶ Pope Damasus II.
1049 ¶ Pope Leo IX. the first pope who maintained a regular army.
1054 THEODORA, empress of the East.
—— Pope Leo IX. taken prisoner by the Normans.
1055 ¶ Pope Victor II.
—— The Turks take Bagdat, and overturn the empire of the Caliphs.

A. D.
1056 HENRY IV. emperor of Germany.
1057 *MALCOLM III.* (Canmore) king of Scotland.
—— ISAAC (Comnenus) emperor of the East.
—— ¶ Pope Stephen X.
1058 ¶ Pope Nicholas II.
—— The Saracens driven out of Sicily by Robert Guiscard the Norman.
1059 CONSTANTINE XII. (Ducas) emperor of the East.
1060 *Philip I. king of France.*
1061 Rise of the faction of the Guelphs and Ghibellines.
—— Henry IV. of Germany on his knees asks pardon of the pope.
—— ¶ Pope Alexander II.
1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066 Harold II. king of England, reigned nine months.
—— William (the Conqueror) king of England.
1068 ROMANUS DIOGENES emperor of the East.
—— Edgar Atheling seeks refuge in Scotland.
—— Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, married to Malcolm king of Scotland.
1070 The feudal law introduced into England.
1071 MICHAEL DUCAS emperor of the East.
1073 ¶ Pope Gregory VII.
1076 The emperor Henry IV. excommunicated and deposed by the pope.
1078 NICEPHORUS (Boton) emperor of the East.
1079 Doomsday-book begun by William the Conqueror.
1081 ALEXIUS I. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.
—— Henry IV. emperor besieges Rome.
1084 Henry IV. re-crowned emperor of Germany.
1086 ¶ Pope Victor III.
1087 ¶ Pope Urban II.
—— William II. (Rufus) king of England.
1093 St. Margaret queen of Scotland died.
—— *DONALD BANE* king of Scotland.
1095 *DUNCAN II.* king of Scotland.
—— Institution of the order of the Knights of Jerusalem.
—— The first Crusade to the Holy Land.—Peter the Hermit.
1097 Newcastle on Tyne built by Malcolm Canmore.

A. D.
1098 Magnus Barefoot, king of Norway, reduces Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, to complete subjection to his crown.
—— The Crusaders take Antioch.
—— *EDGAR* king of Scotland.
1099 Jerusalem taken by Godfrey of Boulogne.—The Knights of St. John instituted.
—— ¶ Pope Paschal II.
1100
—— Henry I. (Beauclerc) king of England.
1102 Guiscard of Normandy takes the title of king of Naples.
1104 Baldwin king of Jerusalem takes Ptolemais.
1106 Henry V. emperor of Germany.
1107 *ALEXANDER I.* king of Scotland.
1108 *Lewis VI. (le Gros) king of France.*
1118 ¶ Pope Gelasius II.
—— The order of Knights Templars instituted.
—— JOHN (Comnenus) emperor of the East
1119 ¶ Pope Calixtus II.
1124 *DAVID I.* king of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Honorius II.
1125 Lotharius II. emperor of Germany.
1130 ¶ Pope Innocent II.
1135 Stephen king of England.
1137 *Lewis VII. (le Jeune) king of France*, married to Eleanor of Guienne.
— The Pandects of the Roman law discovered at Amalphi.
1138 Conrad III. emperor of Germany.
—— The Scots, under David I., defeated by the English in the battle of the Standard.
1039 Alphonso I. king of Portugal, rescues that kingdom from the Saracens.
1140 The Canon Law first introduced into England.
1141 Stephen king of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln by the troops of Matilda.
1143 Stephen recovers his kingdom.
—— ¶ Pope Cælestinus II.
—— MANUEL (Comnenus) emperor of the East.
1144 ¶ Pope Lucius II.
1145 ¶ Pope Eugene III.
1147 The second Crusade excited by St. Bernard.

A. D.
1150 The study of the Civil Law revived at Bologna.
1151 The Canon Law is collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
1152 FREDERIC I. (Barbarossa) emperor of Germany.
1153 *MALCOLM IV.* king of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Anastasius IV.
—— Treaty of Winchester.—Compromise between king Stephen and Prince Henry.
1154 Henry II. (Plantagenet) king of England.
—— ¶ Pope Adrian IV.
—— The parties of the Guelphs and Ghibellines disturb Italy.
1157 The bank of Venice instituted.
1158 Interview between Henry II. and Malcolm IV. at Carlisle.
1159 ¶ Pope Alexander III.
1160 The Albigenses maintain heretical doctrines.
1164 Institution of the order of Teutonic Knights in Germany.
—— T. Becket condemned by the Council of Clarendon.
1165 *WILLIAM* (the Lion) king of Scotland.
1171 T. Becket murdered at Canterbury.
1172 Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.
1180 *Philip Augustus king of France.*
—— ALEXIUS II. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.
1181 ¶ Pope Lucius III.
1183 ANDRONICUS (Comnenus) emperor of the East.
1185 ¶ Pope Urban III.
—— ISAAC ANGELUS emperor of the East.
1187 ¶ Pope Gregory VIII.
—— The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.
1188 ¶ Pope Clement III.
1189 Richard I. (Cœur de Lion) king of England.
—— The third Crusade under Richard I. and Philip Augustus.
1190 HENRY VI. emperor of Germany.
1191 ¶ Pope Cælestinus III.
1192 Richard I. defeats Saladin in the battle of Ascalon.
—— Guy of Lusignan king of Jerusalem.
1195 ALEXIUS ANGELUS (the Tyrant) emperor of the East.
1198 PHILIP emperor of Germany.
— ¶ Pope Innocent III.

D
1199 John king of England.
1200
1202 The fourth Crusade sets out from Venice.
—— Constantinople taken by the French and Venetians.
1203 ALEXIUS and MURBZUPHLUS emperors of the East.
1204 BALDWIN I. emperor of Constantinople, and THEODORE I. (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.
—— The Inquisition established by pope Innocent III.
1206 HENRY emperor of Constantinople.
1208 Otho IV. emperor of Germany.
—— London incorporated, obtains a charter for electing its Mayor and Magistrates.
1210 Crusade against the Albigenses, under Simon de Montfort.
1212 Frederic II. emperor of Germany.
1214 *ALEXANDER II.* king of Scotland.
1215 Magna Charta signed by king John.
1216 Henry III. king of England.
—— PETER and JOHN DUCAS emperors of the East.
1219 ROBERT emperor of the East.
—— Damietta taken by the Crusaders.
1223 *Lewis VIII. king of France.*
1226 Institution of the orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis.
—— ¶ Pope Honorius III.
—— *St. Lewis IX. king of France.*
1227 ¶ Pope Gregory IX.
—— Gengiskan and the Tartars overrun the empire of the Saracens.
1228 BALDWIN II. French emperor of Constantinople.
1234 The Inquisition committed to the Dominican monks.
1237 Russia brought under subjection by the Tartars.
1241 ¶ Pope Cælestinus IV.
1243 ¶ Pope Innocent IV.
1248 The fifth Crusade under St. Lewis.
1249 *ALEXANDER III.* king of Scotland.
1251 Conrad IV. emperor of Germany.
1254 ¶ Pope Alexander IV.
—— Interregnum in the empire of Germany, from the death of Conrad IV. in 1254, to the election of Rodolph in 1273.

A. D.

1255 THEODORE II. (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.

1258 Bagdat taken by the Tartars.—End of the empire of the Saracens.

1259 JOHN (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.

1260 MICHAEL (Palæologus) emperor of Nicæa.

—— The Flagellants preach baptism with blood.

1261 ¶ Pope Urban IV.

—— The Greek emperors recover Constantinople from the French.

1263 The Norwegians invade Scotland, and are defeated by Alexander III. in the battle of Largs.

1264 ¶ Pope Clement IV.

—— The deputies of boroughs first summoned to parliament in England.

—— Henry III. of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lewes.

1265 Charles count of Anjou king of Sicily.

1270 *Philip III. (the Bold) king of France.*

1271 ¶ Pope Gregory X.

1272 Edward I. (Longshanks) king of England.

1273 RODOLFH (of Hapsburg) emperor of Germany, first of the Austrian family.

1276 ¶ Pope Innocent V.

—— ¶ Pope Adrian V.

—— ¶ Pope John XXI.

1277 ¶ Pope Nicholas III.

1281 ¶ Pope Martin IV.

1282 The Sicilian Vespers, when 8000 French were massacred in one night.

1283 ANDRONICUS I. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.

—— The conquest of Wales by Edward I.

1285 ¶ Pope Honorius IV.

—— *Philip IV. (the Fair) king of France.*

1286 *MARGARET* (of Norway) queen of Scotland.

1288 ¶ Pope Nicholas IV.

1290 Interregnum in Scotland for two years.—Competition between Bruce and Baliol for the crown, decided by Edward I.

1291 Ptolemais taken by the Turks.—End of the Crusades.

1292 *JOHN BALIOL* king of Scotland.

—— ADOLPHUS (of Nassau) emperor of Germany.

A. D.

1292 ¶ Pope Cælestinus V.

1293 Jubilee first celebrated at Rome.

—— From this year there is a regular succession of English Parliaments.

1294 Pope Boniface VIII.

1295 MICHAEL ANDRONICUS emperor of the East.

1296 Interregnum in Scotland for eight years.—Sir William Wallace nobly supports the liberty of his country, defeats the English at Stirling, and drives them out of the kingdom.

1298 Wallace chosen regent of Scotland,—defeated at Falkirk.

—— ALBERT I. (of Austria) emperor of Germany.

—— The present Turkish empire begins under Ottoman in Bithynia.

1299 ⌣ Ottoman or Othoman first sultan and founder of the Turkish empire.

1300

1301 Quarrel between Philip the Fair and pope Boniface VIII.

1302 Comyn and Frazer defeat the English thrice in one day.

—— The mariners' compass said to be discovered at Naples.

1304 Wallace betrayed, delivered up, and put to death by Edward I.

1305 ¶ Pope Clement V.

1306 *ROBERT I.* (Bruce) king of Scotland.

1307 The establishment of the Swiss republics.

—— Edward II. king of England.

1308 HENRY VII. emperor of Germany.

—— Donati killed at Florence.

—— The seat of the popes transferred to Avignon for seventy years.

1310 Rhodes taken by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem.

1311 Pierce Gaveston, favourite of Edward II. put to death.

1312 The Knights Templars suppressed by Philip the Fair.

1314 The Scots under Robert Bruce defeat the English under Edward II. at Bannockburn.

A. D.

1314 Lewis V. (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.
—— *Lewis X. (Hutin) king of France.*
1315 *John king of France.*
1316 ¶ Pope John XXII.
—— *Philip V. (the Long) king of France.*
1320 ANDRONICUS II. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
1321 *Charles IV. (the Fair) king of France.*
1327 Edward III. king of England.
1328 *Philip VI. (of Valois) king of France.*
—— ☽ Orchanes or Urchan emperor of the Turks.
1329 *DAVID II.* king of Scotland.—Randolph earl Murray Regent.
1331 The Teutonic Knights settle in Prussia.
1332 Edward Baliol, assisted by Edward III., is crowned at Scone, king of Scots, but is soon driven out of the kingdom.
1333 Casimir III. (the Great) king of Poland.
—— The Scots defeated by Edward III. at Halidoun Hill, July 19.
1334 ¶ Pope Benedict XII.
1340 Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne.
—— Oil painting said to be invented by John Van Eyk.
1341 JOHN V. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
—— John Cantacuzenos, his tutor, usurps the throne.
1342 ¶ Pope Clement VI.
1346 Battle of Crecy, won by Edward III. and the Black Prince over the French.
—— Battle of Durham, in which David II. of Scotland is taken prisoner.
1347 Charles IV. emperor of Germany.
—— Nicola Rienzi assumes the government of Rome.
1350 The Order of the Garter instituted by Edward III.
—— Peter (the Cruel) king of Castile.
1351 *John II. King of France.*
1352 ¶ Pope Innocent VI.
—— The Turks first enter Europe.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which John II. king of France is taken prisoner, and afterwards brought to London
1359 ☽ Amurath I. emperor of the Turks.

A. D.
1362 ¶ Pope Urban V.
—— The law pleadings in England changed from French to English.
1364 *Charles V. king of France.*
1370 ¶ Pope Gregory XI.
—— *ROBERT II.* king of Scotland.
1377 The popes return from Avignon to Rome.
—— Richard II. king of England.
—— Wickliffe's doctrines propagated in England.
1378 The schism of the double popes at Rome and Avignon begins, and continues thirty-eight years.
—— ¶ Pope Urban VI. Rome.
—— ¶ Pope Clement VII. Avignon.
—— WENCESLAUS emperor of Germany, deposed in 1400.
1380 *Charles VI. king of France.*
—— Tamerlane invades and subdues Chorassan.
1381 Wat Tyler's and Jack Straw's insurrection in England.
—— Peace between Venice and Genoa.
—— Bills of Exchange first used in England.
1383 Cannon first used by the English in the defence of Calais.
1384 Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, succeeds to the Earldom of Flanders.
1386 Tamerlane subdues Georgia.
1388 Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas.
1389 ¶ Pope Boniface IX.
1390 *ROBERT III.* king of Scotland.
—— ☽ Bajazet I. emperor of the Turks.
1391 MANUEL II. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
1392 The Cape of Good Hope discovered by the Portuguese.
1394 The Jews banished from France by Charles VI.
—— ¶ Pope Benedict XIII.
1395 Sigismund king of Hungary defeated by Bajazet I.
1398 Tamerlane subdues part of Hindostan, and takes Delhy.
1399 Henry IV. king of England.
1400
1402 Bajazet is taken prisoner by Tamerlane in the battle of Angoria.
—— ☽ Solyman I. emperor of the Turks.

A. D.

1402 Battle of Homildon Hill, in which the Scots are defeated.

1403 Battle of Shrewsbury, in which Hotspur is killed.

1404 ¶ Pope Innocent VII.

1405 Death of Tamerlane.

1406 *JAMES I.* king of Scotland.

—— ¶ Pope Gregory XII.

1409 Council of Pisa, where pope Gregory is deposed.

—— ☽ Musa emperor of the Turks.

—— ¶ Pope Alexander V.

1410 Josse (marquis of Brandenburgh) emperor of Germany.

—— ¶ Pope John XXIII.

1411 Sigismund emperor of Germany.

—— The University of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.

1413 Henry V. king of England.

1414 Council of Constance, in which two popes were deposed, and the popedom remained vacant near three years.

—— ☽ Mahomet I. emperor of the Turks.

1415 Henry V. defeats the French at Agincourt.

—— John Huss condemned by the Council of Constance for heresy, and burnt.

1416 Jerome of Prague condemned by the same Council, and burnt.

1417 ¶ Pope Martin V.

—— Paper first made from linen rags.

1420 The island of Madeira discovered by the Portuguese.

1421 JOHN VI. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.

1422 Amurath besieges Constantinople.

—— ☽ Amurath II. emperor of the Turks.

—— Henry VI. king of England.

—— *Charles VII. king of France.*

—— James I. king of Scots liberated from captivity by the English.

1425 The Court of Session in Scotland instituted by James I.

1428 Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, compels the English to raise the siege of that town.

1431 ¶ Pope Eugene IV.

—— Rise of the Medici family in Florence.

A. D.
1436 Paris recovered by the French from the English.
1437 *JAMES II.* king of Scotland.
1438 ALBERT II. emperor of Germany.
1439 Re-union of the Greek and Latin churches.
—— The Pragmatic Sanction established in France.
1440 FREDERICK III. emperor of Germany.
—— Invention of the art of printing by John Guttenberg at Strasburg.
1444 Ladislaus king of Hungary killed in battle with the Turks.
1445 CONSTANTINE (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
1446 Great inundation of the sea in Holland.
1447 ¶ Pope Nicholas V.
—— Rise of the Sforza family at Milan.
1450 ☽ Mahomet II. emperor of the Turks.
1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks.—EXTINCTION OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.
—— End of the English government in France.
1455 ¶ Pope Calixtus III.
—— Battle of St. Alban's, where Henry VI. is taken prisoner by the duke of York.
1458 ¶ Pope Pius II. Æneas Sylvius.
1459 The art of engraving on copper invented.
1460 *JAMES III.* king of Scotland.
—— Battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York is killed.
1461 Edward IV. king of England.
—— *Lewis XI. king of France.*
—— Battle of Touton, in which the party of Lancaster is defeated.
1468 The Orkney and Shetland islands given to James III. of Scotland, as the dowry of Christiern of Denmark's daughter.
1470 Henry VI. restored to the throne of England.
1471 Battle of Barnet, where Warwick is killed.—Battle of Tewksbury, where the Lancasterians are totally defeated.
—— Edward IV. restored.—Prince Edward of Lancaster basely murdered by Clarence and Gloucester. —Death of Henry VI.
—— ¶ Pope Sixtus IV.
1474 The Cape de Verd islands discovered by the Portuguese.

A. D.

1475 Edward IV. invades France.—Peace of Pacquigni purchased by the French.

1478 The conspiracy of the Pazzi against the Medici at Florence suppressed. The authority of Lorenzo de Medici established.

1479 Ferdinand and Isabella unite the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile.

—— Russia freed from subjection to the Tartars by John.

1481 ⌣ Bajazet II. emperor of the Turks.

1483 *Charles VIII. king of France.*

—— Edward V. king of England.—Richard duke of Gloucester Protector.

—— Edward V. and his brother murdered.

—— Richard III. king of England.

1484 ¶ Pope Innocent VIII.

1485 Battle of Bosworth, in which Richard III. is killed.

—— Henry VII. king of England, first of the house of Tudor.—Union of the houses of York and Lancaster.

1488 *JAMES IV.* king of Scotland.

1491 Granada taken by Ferdinand and Isabella.—End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.

1492 ¶ Pope Alexander VI. (Borgia.)

– Hispaniola and Cuba discovered by Christopher Columbus.

1493 MAXIMILIAN I. emperor of Germany.

1494 Expedition of Charles VIII. into Naples.

—— Algebra first known in Europe.

—— America discovered by Columbus.

1497 The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope, and sail to the East Indies.

1498 *Lewis XII. king of France.*

—— Savanarola burnt by pope Alexander VI. for preaching against the vices of the clergy.

1499 Lewis XII. takes possession of the Milanese.

—— Sebastian Cabot lands in North America.

1500

—— Brazil discovered by the Portuguese.

—— Maximilian divides Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.

1503 ¶ Pope Pius III.

A. D.
1503 ¶ Pope Julius II.
—— Battle of Cerizoles, in which the French lose Naples.
1504 Philip I. king of Spain.—1506. Jane his queen.
1507 Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.
1508 League of Cambray against the Venetians.
1509 Henry VIII. king of England.
—— Battle of Agnadello, May 14.
1511 Cuba conquered by the Spaniards.
—— ☽ Selim I. emperor of the Turks.
1512 The French defeat the Venetians in the battle of Ravenna.
1513 Battle of Flodden, fatal to the Scots, Sept. 11.
—— The English defeat the French in the battle of the Spurs.
—— *JAMES V.* king of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Leo X.
1515 *Francis I. king of France.*
—— Battle of Marignan, in which the French defeat the Swiss.
1516 Charles I. (emperor Charles V.) king of Spain.
—— Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Algiers.
1517 The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther.
—— The Turks put an end to the reign of the Mamelukes in Egypt.
1518 Leo X. condemns Luther's doctrines.
1519 CHARLES V. emperor of Germany.
—— Magellan explores the South Seas.
1520 ☽ Solyman II. (the Magnificent) emperor of the Turks.
—— Sweden and Denmark united.
—— Massacre of Stockholm by Christiern II. and Archbishop Trollo.
1521 ¶ Pope Adrian VI.
—— Gustavus Vasa king of Sweden.
—— Cortez completes the conquest of Mexico.
1522 The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.
—— Rhodes taken by the Turks.
1523 Solyman the Magnificent takes Belgrade.
—— ¶ Pope Clement VII.
1524 Sweden and Denmark embrace the Protestant faith.

A. D.

1525 Battle of Pavia, in which Francis I. is taken prisoner by Charles V.

1526 Treaty of Madrid between Charles V. and Francis I. when the latter is set at liberty.

1527 Rome taken and plundered by Charles V.

—— Pizarro and Dalmagro invade the empire of Peru.

1528 Revolution of Genoa by Andrea Doria.

—— Gustavus Ericson crowned king of Sweden.

1529 Diet of Spires against the Huguenots, then first termed Protestants.

—— Peace of Cambray, August 5.

1530 The league of Smalcald between the Protestants.

1531 Michael Servetus burnt for heresy at Geneva.

1532 The treaty of Nuremberg, August 2.

—— The Court of Session in Scotland new-modelled by James V.

1534 The Reformation takes place in England.

—— ¶ Pope Paul III.

—— Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Tunis.

—— Jack of Leyden heads the Anabaptists at Munster.

1535 The society of the Jesuits instituted by Ignatius Loyola.

—— Expedition of Charles V. against Tunis.

1538 Treaty of Nice between Charles V. and Francis I.

—— The Bible in English appointed to be read in the churches of England.

1540 Dissolution of the monasteries in England by Henry VIII.

1542 Defeat of the Scots at Solway Moss.

—— *MARY* queen of Scotland.

1544 The French defeat the troops of Charles V. in the battle of Cerizoles. The treaty of Crépi.

1545 The Council of Trent begins, which continued eighteen years.

—— The Scots defeat the English at Ancram Muir.

1546 Cardinal Beaton, archbishop of St. Andrew's, as sassinated.

1547 Fiesco's conspiracy at Genoa.

—— The battle of Mulberg, in which the Protestants are defeated, and the Elector of Saxony taken prisoner.

—— Edward VI. king of England.

—— *Henry II. king of France.*

A. D.

1547 Battle of Pinkey in Scotland, where the Scots are defeated by the English, December 10.

1548 The Interim granted by Charles V. to the Protestants.

1550 ¶ Pope Julius III.

1552 The treaty of Passau between Charles V. and the Elector of Saxony, for the establishment of Lutheranism.

1553 Mary queen of England.

—— Lady Jane Grey beheaded.

1555 ¶ Pope Marcellus II.

—— ¶ Pope Paul IV.

—— Many bishops burnt in England by Mary.

1556 FERDINAND I. emperor of Germany.

—— Philip II. king of Spain.

1557 Philip II. defeats the French at St. Quintin.

1558 Calais taken by the French from the English.

—— Elizabeth queen of England.

—— The French defeated in the battle of Gravelines.

—— Mary queen of Scots married to the Dauphin.

1559 ¶ Pope Pius IV.

—— *Francis II. king of France.*

—— Treaty of Catteau Cambresis.

1560 *Charles IX. king of France*

—— Conspiracy of Amboise, formed by the party of Condé against that of Guise.—Beginning of the civil wars in France.

—— The Reformation completed in Scotland by John Knox.

—— The Papal authority abolished by Parliament in Scotland.

1561 Mary queen of Scots arrives in Scotland from France.

1562 Battle of Dreux.—Victory of the Guises over Condé.

1564 MAXIMILIAN II. emperor of Germany.

—— Siege of Malta by the Turks, who are defeated.

1566 ¶ Pope Pius VI.

—— Revolt of the Netherlands from Philip II.

—— Murder of David Rizzio in Scotland.

—— ☽ Selim II. emperor of the Turks.

1567 The duke of Alva sent by Philip to the Netherlands.

A. D.

1567 King Henry Darnley murdered, February 9.
—— *JAMES VI.* king of Scotland.
1568 Mary queen of Scots flies into England for protection.
—— Philip II. exterminates the Moors from Spain.
—— Puts to death his son Don Carlos.
1569 The earl of Murray, regent of Scotland, assassinated by Hamilton.
—— The battles of Jarnac and Moncontour in France, in which the Protestants are defeated.
1571 Naval victory at Lepanto, where the Turks are defeated by Don John of Austria.
1572 ¶ Pope Gregory XIII.
—— The massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24.
1573 Hærlem taken by the Spaniards.
1574 *Henry III. king of France.*
—— Socinus propagates his opinions.
—— Don Sebastian king of Portugal invades Africa.
—— Memorable siege of Leyden, raised by the Prince of Orange, and the admiral Boissot.
1575 ⌣ Amurath III. emperor of the Turks.
1576 RODOLPHUS II. emperor of Germany.
—— The league in France formed against the Protestants.
1578 The Spaniards under Don John of Austria defeated in the battle of Rimenant.
1579 Commencement of the republic of Holland by the union of Utrecht. — Mæstricht taken by the Spaniards.
—— Battle of Alcagar, the Portuguese under Don Sebastian defeated by Muley Moluck.
1580 Philip II. takes possession of Portugal.
—— The world circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.
1582 The Raid of Ruthven in Scotland.—James VI. seized by the earl of Gowrie.
—— The New Style introduced into Italy by pope Gregory XIII. the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
1584 William I. prince of Orange murdered at Delft.
—— Virginia discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh.
—— Embassy from four kings of Japan to Philip II.
1585 ¶ Pope Sixtus V.
—— Schah Abbas the Great king of Persia.

A. D.

1587 Mary queen of Scots beheaded at Fotheringay.
1588 Destruction of the Spanish Armada by the English.
1589 Henry III. of France murdered by Jacques Clement.
—— *Henry IV. (the Great) king of France.*
1590 The battle of Ivry, which ruins the League in France.
—— ¶ Pope Urban VII.
—— ¶ Pope Gregory XIV.
1591 The University of Dublin erected
—— ¶ Pope Innocent IX.
1592 Presbyterian church-government established in Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Clement VIII.
1594 The Bank of England incorporated.
—— ☽ Mahomet III. emperor of the Turks
1596 Cadiz taken by the English.
1598 Edict of Nantes tolerating the Protestants in France.
—— Peace of Vervins concluded between France and Spain.
—— Philip III. king of Spain.
—— Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland.
1600
—— Gowrie's conspiracy in Scotland.
—— The earl of Essex beheaded.
—— The English East-India Company established.
1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 James I. (VI. of Scotland) king of Great Britain.
—— Union of the crowns of England and Scotland.
—— ☽ Achmet I. emperor of the Turks.
1605 The Gunpowder-plot discovered.
—— ¶ Pope Paul V.
1608 Galileo discovers the Satellites of Jupiter.
—— Arminius propagates his opinions.
1610 Henry IV. of France murdered by Ravaillac.
—— *Lewis XIII. king of France.*
—— The Moors expelled from Spain by Philip III.
—— Hudson's Bay discovered.
1611 Baronets first created in England by James I.
1612 Matthias emperor of Germany.
1614 Logarithms invented by Napier of Merchiston.
1616 Settlement of Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh.

A D.
1617 ⌣ Mustapha emperor of the Turks.
1618 The Synod of Dort in Holland.
1619 Discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. Harvey.
—— FERDINAND II. emperor of Germany.
—— Vanini burnt at Thoulouse for atheism.
1620 The battle of Prague, by which the Elector Palatine loses his Electorate.
—— The English make a settlement at Madras.
—— Navarre united to France.
—— ⌣ Othman II. emperor of the Turks.
1621 Philip IV. king of Spain.
—— Batavia built and settled by the Dutch.
—— ¶ Pope Gregory XV.
1622 ⌣ Amurath IV. emperor of the Turks.
1623 ¶ Pope Urban VIII.
—— Institution of the knights of Nova Scotia by James I.
1625 Charles I. king of Great Britain.
—— The island of Barbadoes planted—the first English settlement in the West Indies.
—— Knights Baronets first created in Scotland.
1626 League of the Protestant princes against the emperor.
1632 Gustavus Adolphus killed in the battle of Lutzen.
—— Christina queen of Sweden.
1635 The French Academy instituted.
1637 FERDINAND III. emperor of Germany.
1638 Bagdat taken by the Turks.
—— The Solemn League and Covenant established in Scotland.
1640 John duke of Braganza recovers the kingdom of Portugal.
1641 The Irish Rebellion, and massacre of the Protestants, October 23.
—— ⌣ Ibrahim emperor of the Turks.
—— The earl of Strafford beheaded.
1642 Beginning of the Civil War in England.—The battle of Edgehill, October 23.
1643 *Lewis XIV. king of France.*
—— Anne of Austria regent of France.
—— Archbishop Laud impeached by the Commons, tried and beheaded.

A. D.
1644 ¶ Pope Innocent X.
—— Revolution in China by the Tartars.
1645 Charles I. defeated in the battle of Naseby.
1646 Sir Robert Spottiswoode President of the Session beheaded, 20th January.
1648 The peace of Westphalia.—The civil war of the Fronde at Paris.
1649 Charles I. of England beheaded.
—— The Commonwealth of England begins.
—— ☽ Mahomet IV. emperor of the Turks.
1650 The marquis of Montrose put to death.
—— Battle of Dunbar.—Covenanters defeated by Cromwell.
1651 The battle of Worcester won by Cromwell.
1652 The first war between the English and Dutch.
—— Dark or Mirk Monday, 30th March.
1653 The Dutch fleet defeated by Monk, 30 ships taken and Van Tromp killed, July 30th.
1654 End of the Commonwealth of England.—Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector.
—— The English, under Admiral Penn, take possession of Jamaica.
—— Christina queen of Sweden resigns the crown to Charles X.
1655 ¶ Pope Alexander VII.
1658 Dunkirk delivered to the English.
—— Leopold I. emperor of Germany.
—— Richard Cromwell Lord Protector of England.
1659 The peace of the Pyrenees between France and Spain.
1660 Charles II. king of Great Britain.—Restoration of monarchy.
—— The peace of Oliva between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland.
1661 The marquis of Argyle beheaded for treason, 27th May.
1662 The Royal Society instituted in England.
—— Dunkirk sold back to the French.
1663 Carolina planted.
—— The French Academy of Inscriptions instituted.
1664 The second Dutch war begins.
1665 Charles II. king of Spain.
—— Great plague in London.

A. D.

1666 Great fire of London.
—— The Academy of Sciences instituted in France.
—— Sabatei Levi, in Turkey, pretends to be the Messiah.
—— The Scots Covenanters defeated on Pentland hills.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
—— ¶ Pope Clement IX.
—— The Spanish Netherlands invaded by Lewis XIV.
1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1669 The island of Candia taken by the Turks.
1670 ¶ Pope Clement X.
1672 Lewis XIV. conquers great part of Holland.
—— The De Witts put to death in Holland.
1674 John Sobieski king of Poland.
1676 ¶ Pope Innocent XI.
—— Carolina planted by the English.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen, July 31.
— The Habeas Corpus Act passed in England.
1679 The long Parliament of Charles II. dissolved.
—— The Scots Covenanters defeated at Bothwell Bridge by the duke of Monmouth, June 22d.
1682 Peter the Great czar of Muscovy.
1683 Execution of Lord Russel, 21st July.
—— Execution of Algernon Sydney, 7th December.
—— The siege of Vienna by the Turks, raised by John Sobieski.
1685 James II. king of Great Britain.
—— Revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV.
—— Duke of Monmouth beheaded.
1686 The Newtonian philosophy first published in England.
—— The league of Augsburgh against France.
1687 ☽ Solyman III. emperor of the Turks.
1688 Revolution in Britain.—King James abdicates the throne, December 23.
1689 William and Mary king and queen of Great Britain.
—— Episcopacy abolished in Scotland by king William.
—— Battle of Gillicrankie.—The king's troops defeated.—The viscount of Dundee slain, July 16th, O. S.
— ¶ Pope Alexander VIII.

A. D.

1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1.
1691 ¶ Pope Innocent XII.
—— ☽ Achmet II. emperor of the Turks.
1692 Battle of La Hogue, May 19.
—— Massacre of Glencoe in Scotland, Jan. 31, O. S.
—— Battle of Steenkirk.—King William defeated by Luxemburgh, July 24.
—— Hanover made the ninth Electorate of the empire.
1695 Namur taken by king William, June 25.
—— ☽ Mustapha II. emperor of the Turks.
1697 Peace of Ryswick concluded, September 11.
—— Peter the Great gains a signal victory over the Turks, and takes Asoph.
—— Charles XII. king of Sweden.
1699 Peace of Carlovitz concluded, January 26.
—— The Scots attempt a colony at Darien.
1700
—— Charles XII. begins his first campaign, takes Copenhagen.
—— Philip V. king of Spain.
—— ¶ Pope Clement XI.
1701 Death of James II. at St. Germain's.
1702 Anne queen of Great Britain.—War against France and Spain.
—— The English and Dutch destroy the French fleet at Vigo.
—— The French send colonies to the Mississippi.
1703 Gibraltar taken by admiral Rooke, July 24.
—— ☽ Achmet III. emperor of the Turks.
1704 Battle of Blenheim.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Prince Eugene, August 2.
—— Peter the Great founds St. Petersburgh.
1705 The English take Barcelona.
—— Joseph I. emperor of Germany.
1706 Battle of Ramilies.—The French defeated by the duke of Marlborough, May 12.
—— The treaty of Union between England and Scotland, signed July 22.
1707 The battle of Almanza.—The French and Spaniards, under the duke of Berwick, defeat the Allies, April 14.
1708 Battle of Oudenarde.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, June 30.

A. D.

1708 Minorca taken by general Stanhope, Sept. 18.

1709 Battle of Pultowa.—Charles XII. defeated by czar Peter, June 30.

—— Battle of Malplaquet.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, September 11.

1711 CHARLES VI. emperor of Germany.

1713 The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30.

1714 George I. elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.

1715 *Lewis XV. king of France.*

—— The Rebellion in Scotland.—Battle of Sheriff-muir, November 13.

1716 Prince Eugene defeats the Turks at Peterwaradin.

1718 Charles XII. of Sweden killed at the siege of Frederickshall.

1720 The Mississippi scheme in France projected by John Law, breaks up 23d May.

—— In the same year the South Sea scheme breaks up in England, September.

1721 ¶ Pope Innocent XIII.

1724 ¶ Pope Benedict XIII.

1725 Death of Peter the Great czar of Muscovy.—Catherine empress.

1726 Great earthquake at Palermo, August 21.

1727 George II. king of Great Britain.

—— Treaty of Copenhagen between Great Britain and Denmark.

—— The Spaniards besiege Gibraltar, May 20.

1728 Treaty between Great Britain and Holland, May 27.

—— The Congress of Soissons, June 14.

1729 Treaty of Seville between Great Britain, France, and Spain, November 9.

1730 ¶ Pope Clement XII.

—— Christian VI. king of Denmark.

—— The Persians under Kouli-Khan defeat the Turks.

—— ☽ Mahomet V. emperor of the Turks.

1731 Treaty between Great Britain, the emperor, and king of Spain, July 22.

1733 The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay, January.

—— Frederick III. king of Poland.

1734 Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Russia, December 2.

1735 The French defeat the Imperialists in Italy.

A. D.
1736 Peace between Spain and Austria.
—— Kouli-Khan (Nadir-Schah) proclaimed king of Persia, September 29.
1737 War declared between the Emperor and the Turks, July 2.
1738 The Russians invade the Crimea.
1739 Nadir-Schah conquers the greatest part of the Mogul empire.
—— Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark.
—— Peace between the Emperor and the Turks, August 21.
—— Peace between Russia and the Turks, November.
—— Portobello taken by Admiral Vernon, November 21.
1740 Frederick III. (the Great) king of Prussia.
—— ¶ Pope Benedict XIV.
—— War between Poland and Hungary.
1741 War between Russia and Sweden.
—— Carthagena taken by Admiral Vernon, June 19.
—— The Prussians masters of Silesia, October 20.
1742 Peace between Austria and Prussia, June 11.
—— Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, November 18.
—— CHARLES VII. (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.
1743 Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Russia, February.
—— War in Germany between the British, Hungarians, French, and Austrians.
—— The French defeated by the Allies at Dettingen, June 6.
1744 War declared in Great Britain against France, March 31.
—— The king of Prussia takes Prague.
—— Commodore Anson completes his voyage round the world.
1745 FRANCIS I. (of Lorraine) emperor of Germany.
—— Quadruple alliance between Britain, Austria, Holland and Poland.
—— The allied army defeated by the French at Fontenoy, April 30.
—— Louisburgh and Cape Breton taken by the British troops, June 6.
—— The Rebellion breaks out in Scotland, July.

A. D.

1745 Defeat of the king's forces by the Rebels at Prestonpans, September 21.

—— Treaty of Dresden between Prussia, Poland, Austria, and Saxony, December 25.

1746 Defeat of the king's forces by the Rebels at Falkirk, January 17.

—— Ferdinand VI. king of Spain.

—— Frederic V. king of Denmark.

—— Count Saxe takes Brussels and Antwerp.

—— Victory of Culloden, which puts an end to the Rebellion in Scotland, April 16.

—— Lords Balmerino and Kilmarnock beheaded, August 18.

—— Count Saxe defeats the Allies at Raucoux, October 11.

—— Dreadful earthquake at Lima, October 17.

1747 Lord Lovat beheaded, April 9.

—— The French defeat the allied army at Lafeldt, July 2.

—— Bergen-op-Zoom taken by the French, September 5.

—— The French fleet defeated by Admiral Hawke, October 14.

—— Kouli-Khan murdered.—Revolution in Persia.

1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between Great Britain, France, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, and Holland, October 7.

1749 League between the Pope, Venetians, &c. against the Algerines, &c.

1750 Joseph king of Portugal.

—— Academy of Sciences founded at Stockholm.

—— Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Spain, October 5.

1751 Adolphus of Holstein king of Sweden.

—— Peace between Spain and Portugal.

1752 New Style introduced in Britain, September 2 reckoned 14.

1753 The British Museum established in Montague-house.

1754 Great eruption of Ætna.

—— Great earthquake at Constantinople and Cairo, September 2.

—— Othman III. emperor of the Turks.

A. D.

1755 Defeat of general Braddock near Fort du Quesne, July 9.
—— Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, November 1.
1756 War declared between Great Britain and France, May 18.
—— Surrender of Minorca by Blakeney, June 28.
1757 Damiens attempts to assassinate Lewis XV.
—— King of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Reichenberg and Prague.
—— Count Dauhn repulses the king of Prussia at Kolin, June 18.
—— Verden and Bremen taken by the French, August.
—— Convention of Closterseven, September 8.
—— The Prussians defeat the French and Austrians at Rosbach, November 5.
—— The king of Prussia master of Silesia, December 21.
—— ☽ Mustapha III. emperor of the Turks.
1758 ¶ Pope Clement XIII.
—— Senegal taken by the English, May 1.
—— Cape Breton taken by the English, June 17.
—— The English repulsed at Ticonderoga, July 8.
—— The British troops take Louisburgh, July 27.
—— Count Dauhn defeats the king of Prussia at Hochkirken, October 14.
—— The British troops take Fort du Quesne, November 25.
—— Goree taken by Keppel, December 29.
1759 Guadaloupe surrendered to the English, May 1.
—— The French defeated by the allied army at Minden, August 1.
—— French fleet defeated by Boscawen off Gibraltar, August 18.
—— Charles III. king of Spain.
—— The Jesuits expelled from Portugal, September 3.
—— General Wolfe takes Quebec, September 17.
—— French fleet defeated by Hawke off Belleisle, November 20.
1760 Montreal and Canada taken by the British troops, September 8.
—— George III. king of Great Britain, October 25.
—— The king of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Torgau, November 3.

A. D.

1761 Pondicherry taken by the English, January 15.
1762 Martinico surrendered to the English, February 4.
—— Peter III. emperor of Russia.
—— The Jesuits banished from France, August.
—— Havannah taken by the English, August 12.
—— Peace between Great Britain and France at Fontainbleau, November 3.
1763 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, at Paris, February 10.
—— Catherine II. empress of Russia.
1764 Stanislaus II. king of Poland.
—— Sujah Dowla defeated by Munro at Buxar, October 23.
—— Byron's discoveries in the South Seas.
1765 Joseph II. emperor of Germany.
1766 American stamp act repealed, March 18.
—— The Jesuits expelled from Bohemia and Denmark.
—— Christian VII. king of Denmark.
1767 The Jesuits expelled from Spain, Genoa, and Venice.
—— Wallis and Carteret's discoveries in the South Seas.
1768 Royal Academy of Arts established at London.
—— The Jesuits expelled from Naples, Malta, and Parma.
—— Bougainville's discoveries in the South Seas.
1769 ¶ Pope Clement XIV.
—— Cook's first discoveries in the South Seas.
—— Corsica taken by the French, June 13.
1770 Earthquake at St. Domingo.
1771 Gustavus III. king of Sweden.
1772 Revolution in Sweden, August 19.
—— Poland dismembered by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
1773 Cook's second voyage and discoveries.
—— The society of the Jesuits suppressed by the pope's bull, August 25.
1774 *Lewis XVI. king of France.*
—— ☽ Abdhul-Achmet emperor of the Turks.
—— American war commenced, November 15.
1775 Battle of Bunker's-hill in America, June 7.
1776 ¶ Pope Pius VI.
—— The Americans declare their independence, July 4.

A. D.

1777 Mary queen of Portugal.
—— Philadelphia taken by the British troops, Oct. 3.
—— Surrender of general Burgoyne at Saratoga, October 7.
1778 League between the French and Americans, October 30.
1779 Peace between the Imperialists and Prussians, May 13.
—— Great eruption of Vesuvius, August 8.
—— Siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards, July.
—— Captain Cook killed at Owhyhee.
1780 Sir G. Rodney defeats the Spanish fleet near Cape Vincent, January 16.
—— Charlestown surrenders to the British, May 12.
—— Riots in London on account of the popish bill, June 2.
—— Lord Cornwallis defeats the Americans at Cambden, August 16.
—— War declared between Great Britain and Holland, December 20.
1781 The Americans defeated at Guilford by Lord Cornwallis.
—— Surrender of the British troops to the Americans and French at Yorktown, October 18.
1782 Sir G. Rodney defeats the French fleet off Dominica, April 12.
—— Sir Edw. Hughes defeats the French fleet under Suffrein in the East Indies, Feb. 17.
1783 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, and the Independence of America declared, January 20.
1784 Peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
1785 Treaty of alliance between Austria, France, and Holland, November 9.
1786 Frederick IV. king of Prussia.
—— Commercial treaty between England and France, September 26.
1787 The assembly of the Notables convened at Paris February 22.
—— Mr. Hastings impeached for misdemeanours in the government of India, May 21.
1788 Prince Charles Edward died at Rome, January 31.

A. D.

1788 The Parliament of Paris remonstrates against the use of lettres de cachet, March 16.

—— Defensive alliance between England and Holland, April 25.

—— The Regency-bill debated by the House of Commons, December 10.

1789 The abolition of the slave-trade proposed in Parliament.

—— ⌣ Selim III. emperor of the Turks, April.

—— The Assembly of the States-General opened at Paris, May 5.—Beginning of the French Revolution.

—— They form themselves into the National Assembly, June 16.

—— The Bastile taken, and the governor massacred, July 14.

—— The princes of the blood and chief noblesse leave France, July.

—— The king of France brought to Paris, accepts the Declaration of the Rights of Man, October 6.

—— Decree for dividing France into eighty-three departments, October 30.

1790 Monastic establishments suppressed in France, February 13.

—— Titles of nobility suppressed in France, Feb. 24.

—— War commenced in India with Tippoo Sultan, May 1.

—— General confederation at Paris, in the Champ de Mars, July 14.

—— LEOPOLD II. emperor of Germany.

1791 The king of France with his family escape from Paris, but are intercepted at Varennes, June 22.

—— Riots at Birmingham, July 14.

—— The king of France accepts the Constitution, September 14.

1792 FRANCIS II. emperor of Germany.

—— Gustavus III. king of Sweden assassinated by Ankerstroom, March 29.

—— Gustavus IV. king of Sweden.—Duke of Sudermania regent in his minority.

—— An armed mob forces the Tuileries, and insults the king of France, June 20.

A. D.
1792 The Duke of Brunswick, with the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, arrives at Coblentz July 3.
—— The National Assembly decrees the country in danger, July 11.
—— Petion and the community of Paris demand the king's deposition, August 3.
—— The Tuileries again attacked.—The king and queen of France take refuge in the National Assembly.—The Swiss guards massacred by the populace, August 10.
—— The royal authority suspended by the National Assembly, August 10.
—— The Royal Family imprisoned in the Temple, August 14.
—— A dreadful massacre of the state-prisoners at Paris, September 2, 3.
—— The National Convention is constituted, the king deposed, and France declared a Republic, September 21.
—— The Republic decrees fraternity and assistance to all nations in the recovery of their liberty, November 19.
—— Savoy incorporated with the French Republic, November 27.
—— The Convention decrees the trial of Lewis XVI. December 2.
—— Lewis XVI. brought to trial, answers each article of accusation, December 14.
1793 Lewis XVI. condemned to death by a majority of five voices, January 17.
—— Lewis XVI. beheaded, January 21.
—— The Alien bill passed in the British House of Commons, January 24.
—— Russia declares war against France, January 31.
—— The French Convention declares war against England and Holland, February 1.
—— Lyons declares for Lewis XVII. February 28.
— Decree for the French people rising in a mass, August 20.
— Surrender of Toulon to Lord Hood's fleet, August 28.

A. D.

1793 Marie Antoinette queen of France condemned to death by the Convention, and beheaded the same day, October 15.

—— Brissot and the chiefs of the Girondist party guillotined.

—— Robespierre triumphant, November.

—— The English evacuate Toulon, December 19.

1794 The princess Elizabeth of France beheaded, May 12.

—— The Habeas Corpus act suspended, May.

—— Lord Howe defeats the French fleet off Ushant, June 1.

—— Robespierre, with his chief partisans, guillotined, July 28.

—— Battle of Warsaw.—The Polish liberties destroyed, October 12.

—— The Jacobin Club suppressed, October 18.

—— Trials of Hardy, Tooke, Thelwall, &c. for treason, November.

1795 The Stadtholder takes refuge in England.—Holland overrun by the French, January.

—— Mr. Hastings' trial ended, by his acquittal, April 22.

—— Lyons bombarded, laid in ruins, and all its loyal inhabitants massacred, May.

—— Lewis XVII. died in prison at Paris, June 8.

—— The Cape of Good Hope taken by the British forces under Sir J. H. Craig, Gen. Clarke, and Sir G. K. Elphinstone, September 16.

—— Belgium incorporated with the French Republic, September 30.

—— Great disorders in Ireland, October, November, December.

—— Stanislaus II. resigns the crown of Poland.—The kingdom divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, November 25.

—— Ceylon taken by the British under Gen. J. Stewart, and Com. Ranier, February 15.

1796 The Count d'Artois, with his suite, take up their residence at Edinburgh, January 6.

—— The East India Company votes an indemnification and recompence to Mr. Hastings, January.

—— The French overrun and plunder Italy.

A. D.
1796 Lord Malmesbury negotiates for peace at Paris, October 28.
—— Death of Catherine II.—Paul emperor of Russia, November 17.
—— Lord Malmesbury quits Paris, December 20.
1797 A mutiny of the British fleet at Portsmouth and the Nore suppressed, May, June.
—— The Scots Militia bill passed, July.
—— Negotiations at Lisle for a peace broken off.
—— The Dutch fleet beaten and captured by Lord Duncan, October 11.
1798 The papal government suppressed by the French.—The pope quits Rome, Feb. 26.
—— Ireland in open rebellion, May, June, &c.
—— Lord Nelson totally defeats the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1.
—— The Swiss finally defeated, and their independence abolished, September 19.
—— The French fleet defeated by Sir J. B. Warren, October 12.
1799 A union with Ireland proposed in the British Parliament, January 22.
—— The motion rejected by the Commons of Ireland, January 24.
—— Seringapatam taken by general Harris and Sir David Baird, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.
—— The French under Bonaparte defeated by Sir Sydney Smith at Acre, May 21.
—— Expedition of the British troops against Holland, August.
—— Death of pope Pius VI. September.
—— The British troops evacuate Holland, November.
—— A revolution at Paris.—Bonaparte declared First Consul, December 25.
1800
—— Vote of the Irish House of Commons agreeing to the Union with Ireland, February 5.—Similar vote of the House of Lords, 17.
—— Bonaparte defeats the Austrians in the battle of Marengo in Italy, June 14.
—— Malta taken by the British forces, September 5.
1801 First meeting of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, January.

— ¶ Pope Pius VII. elected. March 13.

A. D.

1801 Mr. Pitt resigns, after being minister eighteen years, February 9.—Mr. Addington Chancellor of the Exchequer.

—— Battle of Alexandria.—The French defeated and Sir Ralph Abercrombie killed, March 21.

—— The emperor Paul dethroned and put to death.—Alexander I. emperor of Russia, March 23.

—— Battle of Copenhagen.—The Danish fleet taken and destroyed by lord Nelson, April 3.

—— Taking of Cairo by the British troops, May 11.

—— Alexandria surrendered to the British troops, August 27.

—— Preliminaries of Peace signed between Great Britain and France, October 1.

1802 The Catholic religion re-established in France, March.

—— The Treaty of Amiens signed, March 27.

—— Bonaparte elected Chief Consul for ten years, May.

—— Bonaparte declared Chief Consul for life, July.

—— The prince of Orange renounces the office of Stadtholder, August.

1803 Execution of colonel Despard for high treason.

—— The emperor of Germany ratifies the new organization of Germany, April.

—— Dissolution of the Peace with France.—Lord Whitworth, ambassador, quits Paris, May.

—— The French seize Hanover, June 4.

—— The British troops enter Delhi, and the Great Mogul puts himself under protection of general Lake, September.

1804 Murder of the duke d'Enghien by order of Bonaparte, 15th March.

—— Mr. Pitt re-appointed prime minister, 10th May.

—— Bonaparte proclaimed emperor of the French, 20th May.

—— Dessalines in St. Domingo declares himself emperor of Hayti, October.

1805 The Spaniards declare war against Great Britain, January.

—— Bonaparte assumes the title of king of Italy, March.

—— Impeachment of lord Melville, which terminated in his complete acquittal

A. D.

1805 Lord Nelson defeats the fleets of France and Spain at Trafalgar.—Takes 20 sail, and is killed in the engagement, 21st October.

—— The French defeat the Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz, December 2.

1806 Death of William Pitt, 23d January.

—— Louis Bonaparte proclaimed king of Holland, June 5.

—— The House of Lords concurs with the Commons in the resolutions for abolishing the slave trade, June.

—— Sir John Stuart defeats the French under Regnier at Maida in Calabria, July.

—— Death of Charles James Fox, September 13.

—— Rupture of the negotiation for Peace with France, and return of earl Lauderdale, October.

—— The French defeat the Prussians in the great battle of Jena, which annihilates the Prussian power, October 14.

—— Hamburgh occupied by the French under Mortier, November.

—— Bonaparte declares the British Isles in a state of blockade, November.

—— The slave trade abolished by act of Parliament, February.

1807 Mr. Perceval Chancellor of the Exchequer, March.

—— Parliament dissolved after a session only of four months, April.

—— Dantzic taken by the French, May.

—— Revolution at Constantinople, Sultan Selim deposed, and Sultan Mustapha proclaimed, May.

—— Battle of Friedland.—Russians defeated by the French, June 14.

—— Peace signed at Tilsit between France and Russia and Prussia, June.

—— Copenhagen bombarded, and all the Danish fleet surrendered to the British, September 7, under lord Cathcart and admiral Gambier.

—— The British troops evacuate Egypt, October.

—— The Prince Regent and Royal Family of Portugal embark for Brazil, November 29.

1808 The French prohibit all commerce with Great Britain, January.

—— A new French nobility created by Bonaparte, Jan.

A. D.

1808 The French troops enter Rome, and seize the pope's dominions, February.

—— Frederick VI. king of Denmark, March.

—— Charles IV. abdicates the crown of Spain to his son Ferdinand VII. March 19.

—— The French under Murat enter Madrid, March 23.

—— British goods prohibited to be imported into Russia, April.

—— Ferdinand VII. is compelled to renounce the throne of Spain, and is sent with the Royal Family to Paris.

—— Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed king of Spain, June 16.

—— The Portuguese arm against the French.—The Spanish patriots solicit aid from Great Britain, June.

—— The Grand Seignior Mustapha deposed.—Mahomet VI. Turkish emperor, July 28.

—— Battle of Vimiera in Portugal.—The French under Junot defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, August 21.

—— Convention at Cintra, August 30.

—— Conference held at Erfurth between the Russian emperor Alexander and Bonaparte, September 27.

—— The ports of Holland shut against Britain, November 27.

1809 Battle of Corunna.—The French defeated.—Sir John Moore killed.—The British army re-embark for England, January 16.

—— The duke of York accused before the Commons of malversation in office as Commander-in-chief.—Acquitted, March 17.

—— Gustavus king of Sweden deposed, March 13.

—— The Austrians defeated by the French in the battles of Ratisbon and Eckmuhl, April 20, 23.

—— The battle of Talavera, in which the French are defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, July 27.

—— The island of Walcheren taken by the British, July 31.—Evacuated, November 24.

—— The 50th anniversary of the king's reign celebrated as a jubilee, October 25.

—— The French fleet in the Mediterranean defeated by lord Collingwood, October.

A. D.

1810 Bonaparte divorces the empress Josephine, January 16.

—— A French decree was issued, uniting Rome to France, February 17.

—— Guadaloupe, the last of the French West India islands, surrenders to the British, March 5.

—— Marriage of Bonaparte with princess Maria Louisa of Austria, April 1.

—— Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower for a libel on the House of Commons, April 5.

—— Louis Bonaparte abdicates the throne of Holland, July 1.

—— The isle of Bourbon taken by the British, July 8.

—— Holland united to the French empire, July 9.

—— Bernadotte chosen crown prince of Sweden, August 21.

—— Battle of Busaco.—The French defeated by lord Wellington, September 27.

—— The first meeting of the Cortes in Spain since the usurpation of Bonaparte, September 28.

—— All British merchandize burnt in France, October 19.

—— The deposed Gustavus of Sweden arrived in England, November 14.

—— Isle of France captured by general Abercromby and admiral Bertie, December 3.

—— Lucien Bonaparte, and his family, arrived in this country from Malta, December 13.

1811 A deputation from the Lords and Commons waited on the Prince of Wales with an address, praying His Royal Highness to accept of the Regency, under certain limitations and restrictions, January 10.

—— Dreadful massacre in Cairo, in which about 1600 Mamelukes lost their lives, March 1.

—— Battle of Barossa.—The French defeated by general Graham, Mar. 5.

—— The empress of France, Maria Louisa, delivered of a son, who is styled King of Rome, March 20.

—— Island of Anholt attacked by a Danish force of nearly 4000 men; but are repulsed by a British force of 150 men, under Capt. Maurice, leaving behind them 500 prisoners, March 27.

A. D

1811 Battle of Albuera.—The French under Soult defeated by general Beresford, with the loss of 9000 men, May 16.

—— Eruption of a volcano in the sea, off the island of St. Michael, June.

—— From the excessive heat in July, conflagrations took place in the forests of the Tyrol, by which 64 villages with 10,000 head of cattle were destroyed, and about 24,000 persons deprived of habitations.

—— The French island of Java capitulated to the British arms, August 8.

—— Feudal rights abolished in Spain, August 19.

—— A comet appeared in England, September 1.

—— Serious riots at Nottingham; journeymen weavers destroying articles of machinery which diminished the demand for labour, November 16.

1812 Ciudad Rodrigo taken by storm, Jan. 19, by lord Wellington, who is thereupon created Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo.

—— Destructive earthquake at Caraccas, &c. March 26.

—— Badajoz taken by storm, April 6.

—— Dreadful eruption of a volcana at St. Vincent's, April 30.

—— The Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, Prime Minister of Great Britain, was assassinated in the House of Commons by John Bellingham, May 11.

—— Battle of Salamanca, July 22; on the receipt of the intelligence of which, there were general illuminations in London three successive nights.

—— Madrid captured by the British, August 12.

—— Smolensko entered by the French, August 18.

—— Battle of Moskwa, September 7.

—— The French entered Moscow (three quarters of which, however, the Russians had previously destroyed by fire), September 14.

—— The passage of the Berezyna cost the French 20 000 men, Nov. 28.

—— Bonaparte arrives in Paris at midnight, Dec. 18; having quitted his defeated and ruined army in Russia, and travelled *incog.*

—— A Concordat was signed at Fontainbleau, between Bonaparte and the pope, Pius VII., Jan. 25.

A. D.

1812 Lewis XVIII. published an Address to the people of France, February 1.

—— A treaty of alliance is formed between Russia and Prussia, March.

—— Bonaparte again left Paris for the seat of war (having first formally constituted Maria Louisa Empress Regent during his absence) April 15.

—— A decree of the Spanish Cortes, for abolishing the Inquisition in Spain, was carried into effect, April.

—— Battle of Lutzen, May 2.

—— An official statement by the Russian Government estimates the loss of the French and their allies, in their invasion of Russia, as follows:—Killed, 24 Generals, 2000 Staff and other Officers, 204,400 rank and file; Prisoners, 43 Generals, 3441 Staff and other Officers, 233,222 rank and file; Taken, 1131 pieces of cannon, 63 pairs of colours and standards, one marshal's staff, about 100,000 muskets, and about 27,000 ammunition-waggons. The horrible sufferings of the French army in its disastrous retreat from Russia, by the effects of the frost, may be inferred from the statement, that in the three governments of Moscow, Witepsk, and Mohilow, 253,000 dead bodies, and in the city of Wilna and its environs 53,000, had been burned so early as the 27th of March.

1813 The newly-created law officer, called Vice-Chancellor of Great Britain, Sir Thomas Plomer, sat for the first time at Lincoln's-Inn Hall, May 1.

—— The great battle of Vittoria in Spain; in which the marquis of Wellington totally defeated the French army with immense loss. For this service the marquis was made a Field Marshal in the British army.—London and Westminster were illuminated three successive nights.

1814 Dantzic taken by the allies, Jan. 2.

—— Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden for Rugen and Swedish Pomerania.—Joins the allies.

—— Wellington totally defeats the French at Orthes and Toulouse.

- Sir T. Graham defeated at Bergen-op-Zoom.

A. D.

1814 Ferdinand VII. of Spain restored; revives the Inquisition, and destroys the Constitution adopted by the Cortes.

—— Paris capitulated, and is occupied by the Russians and Prussians, March 31.

—— Bonaparte deposed, and his dynasty declared at an end, April 3.

—— Bonaparte embarks for Elba, April 28.

—— *Lewis XVIII.* made his solemn entry into Paris, May 3.

—— The emperor of Russia and king of Prussia arrive in London, June 8.

—— Washington taken by the British army, August 24.

—— Hanover declared a kingdom.

—— Charles XIII. of Sweden proclaimed king of Norway, Nov. 4.

—— Peace concluded at Ghent between Great Britain and the United States, December 24.

1815 Corn Laws enacted, which leads to many serious riots.

—— Bonaparte lands at Cannes, in Provence, March 1, and arrives at Paris on the 25th.

—— Treaty of Vienna concluded, March 25.

—— Bonaparte totally defeated at Waterloo, June 18.

—— The allied army enters Paris, July 5, and Lewis XVIII. on the following day.

—— Bonaparte surrenders to the British, July 15; and is banished to St. Helena, where he arrives October 15.

—— Convention concluded which is known by the name of the Holy Alliance, September 14.

—— Joachim Murat ex-king of Naples shot at Pizzo, October 15.

—— Marshal Ney shot, December 7.

1816 Princess Charlotte of Wales married to prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, May 2.

—— Lord Exmouth bombards Algiers, August 27.

1817 Habeas Corpus act suspended, March 4.

—— The Bank of England commence paying cash for their notes.

—— Princess Charlotte died in child-bed, in the 22d year of her age, November 6.

A. D.

1817 The marquis of Hastings destroys the Mahratta power in India.

1818 Charles XIII. of Sweden died, and was succeeded by Charles John XIV. crown prince, ci-devant marshal Bernadotte.

—— The dukes of Clarence, Kent, and Cambridge, and the princess Elizabeth, married.

—— Queen Charlotte died, in the 75th year of her age, November 17.

—— The Army of Occupation withdrawn from France.

1819 Charles IV. ex-king of Spain died at Rome, January 20.

—— Sir M. M. Lopes sentenced to two years' imprisonment and to pay a fine of £10,000. for bribing the electors of Grampound.

—— Princess Victoria born, May 24.

—— Manchester riots—many people killed by the yeomanry cavalry.

1820 The duke of Kent died, January 23.

—— George III. died January 29, in the 82d year of his age, and after having reigned nearly 60 years.

—— George IV. proclaimed king, January 31.

—— The duke of Berri assassinated, February 13.

—— The Cato-street conspirators arrested, and five of them executed, May 1.

—— Queen Caroline arrived in London, June 6—and on the 5th of July a bill of pains and penalties against her majesty was presented in the House of Lords by the earl of Liverpool, which led to a memorable trial; the bill was read a second time, but was finally abandoned on the 10th of November. London was illuminated for two nights in consequence.

—— Revolution in Naples and Piedmont—suppressed by Austria.

1821 The Floridas ceded by Spain to the United States of America.

—— The Catholic Bill passed the House of Commons, April 3, but was negatived in the House of Lords.

—— Napoleon Bonaparte died at St. Helena, May 5. He was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, Aug. 15, 1769.

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1821 George IV. crowned at Westminster Abbey, July 19. This was perhaps the most splendid coronation which ever took place in this country—and the most expensive. His Majesty visits Ireland and Hanover.

—— Queen Caroline died Aug. 7.

—— Revolution in Mexico.

1822 Iturbide crowned emperor of Mexico, July 20.

1823 The congress of sovereigns at Verona, viz. Austria, Prussia, and Russia, recall their ambassadors from Spain in consequence of the violent proceedings of the Cortes, January 5.

—— Iturbide emperor of Mexico abdicates his throne, March 19.

—— Lewis XVIII. declares war against Spain, and the French army under the command of the duke of Angouleme pass the Bidassoa, April 7.

—— The Spanish constitution and the acts of the Cortes abolished.

—— ¶ Leo XII. (cardinal della Genga) elected pope, September 27.

—— Riego the Spanish constitutional general executed at Madrid, October 7.

—— Great Britain sends consular agents to South American states.

1824 Eugene Beauharnois son of the empress Josephine died February 11.

—— The pile stone of London Bridge sunk, March 15.

—— Lord Byron died at Missolonghi, April 17, aged 37.

—— Burmese war—Rangoon taken.

—— The London Mechanics' Institution established.

—— Bolivar dictator at Peru.

—— Iturbide ex-emperor lands in Mexico, and is arrested and shot, July 19.

—— Ipsara taken by the Turks, and retaken by the Greeks with great slaughter.

—— Provisional government in Greece.

—— Lewis XVIII. king of France died September 16, aged 68, and was succeeded by his brother

—— *Charles X.*

1825 Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies died January 4, and was succeeded by his son Francis I.

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1825 A tremendous earthquake, which continued at intervals for five days, nearly desolated the city of Algiers; the town of Blida was totally destroyed, and out of a population of 15,000 only 300 were saved, March 2.

—— Charles X. king of France crowned with great pomp at Rheims, May 29.

—— The Enterprise steam vessel left the Thames for the East Indies, July 30.

—— Great commercial panic in London, Dec. 12; the house of Wentworth and Co., the largest bankers in Yorkshire, failed, and several other country bankers; this causes an unusual demand for cash on the London bankers, five London houses stop payment, and Consols fall to 79. The Bank issued a large supply of one and two pound notes, confidence was restored, and the panic ceased before the end of the year.

1826 Lindley Murray, author of the well-known English Grammar, died, January 16, aged 80.

—— The stupendous suspension bridge over the Menai, near Bagnor, North Wales, was opened, Jan. 30. Length of the chain 1,600 feet, height above high water mark 100 feet.

—— John VI. king of Portugal and emperor of Brazil died, March 10, aged 59.—Succeeded as emperor of Brazil by Don Pedro, who abdicates the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter Donna Maria da Gloria, aged 7 years.

—— Elizabeth Alexevena, relict of Alexander emperor of Russia, died, May 16, aged 45.

—— The Bank of England resolved to establish branch banks in various populous cities and towns in England, July 25.

—— Francis Joseph Talma, the celebrated French tragedian, died at Paris, Oct. 19, aged 60.

—— First illuminated clock introduced in London, at the church of St. Bride's, Fleet Street, by which the hour may be distinguished in the darkest night, December 2.

1827 The duke of York died, Jan. 5, aged 64.

—— M. Pestalozzi, author of a system of education which goes by his name, died, February 17.

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1827 John Adams, ex-president of America, died on the fiftieth anniversary of independence, July 4.

—— Right Hon. George Canning died, August 8.

—— Battle of Navarino, Oct. 20, in which the Turkish and Egyptian fleets, of 110 sail, were nearly destroyed, by a combined British, French, and Russian fleet, under the command of Admiral Codrington.

1828 Prince Ypsilanti, the first promoter of the Greek revolution, died at Vienna, January 29.

—— Don Pedro, emperor of Brazil, abdicates the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria; and his brother, Don Miguel, is appointed regent, March 3.

—— Corporation and Test Acts repealed, April 28.

—— Don Miguel assumed the title of King of Portugal, June 24.

—— The London University opened, October 1.

—— The Earl of Liverpool died, December 4.

—— Dr. Wollaston died, December 22, aged 62.

1829 York Minster is set on fire by Jonathan Martin (who was found to be insane), and the interior part of the building nearly destroyed, Feb. 2.

—— Andrew Jackson, president of the United States, March 4.

—— ¶ Pope Pius VIII. elected, March 31.

—— Catholic Emancipation Bill passed, April 13.

—— Sir Humphry Davy, the inventor of the safety lamp, died May 29.

—— The independence of Greece acknowledged by Turkey, September 29.

1830 Sir Thomas Lawrence, president of the Royal Academy, died January 7.

—— George IV. died, June 26, aged 68; he was Regent 9 years, and reigned 10 years.

—— William IV. king of Great Britain and Ireland.

—— Algiers taken by the French, the Dey deposed, and the territory made a French province, July 5.

—— Charles X. king of France, in two ordinances, dissolved the new Chamber of Deputies before it had met, changed the law of elections, and suppressed the liberty of the press, July 25.

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—— The revolution of the Three Days, in Paris, July 27 28, 29, terminated in the expulsion of the king and the whole of the royal family from France, and in the election of a new dynasty by the representatives of the people.

1830 *Louis Philippe, duke of Orleans, king of the French*, August 7.

—— The Belgian revolution breaks out, and terminates in a declaration of independence, Oct. 4, and is recognised by the European powers, Dec. 26.

—— The Manchester and Liverpool railway opened, on which occasion the Right Hon. William Huskisson was killed, Sep. 15.

—— Ferdinand II. king of Naples, November 7.

1831 Don Pedro, emperor of Brazil, abdicates the crown in favour of his son, Don Pedro II. an infant.

—— ¶ Pope Gregory XVI. elected February 2.

—— Charles Amadeus V. king of Sardinia, April 20.

—— Prince Leopold elected king of the Belgians.

—— The new London Bridge opened, August 1.

—— William IV. and Queen Adelaide crowned, Sep. 8.

—— Count Capo d'Istria, president of Greece, assassinated, October 8.

—— Cholera Morbus appears at Sunderland, Nov. 4.

1832 Cholera appeared in London, January 14.

—— The kingdom of Poland suppressed, and incorporated with, and becomes a province of, Russia, February 26.

—— The cholera raged with great violence in Paris; 1000 deaths occurred in the first week, March.

—— Baron Cuvier died, May 13.

—— The English Reform Bill passed, June 7.

—— The duke of Reichstadt, only child of Napoleon Bonaparte, died, July 24, aged 21.

—— Sir Walter Scott died, September 21.

1833 Otho elected king of Greece, and lands at Nauplia, February.

—— William Wilberforce died, July 29, aged 73.

—— Hannah More died, September 7, aged 88.

—— Ferdinand VII. king of Spain died, September 29, and his queen appointed Regent during the minority of her daughter, Isabella II., an infant.

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1833 A great inundation in China caused by the incessant rain; 10,000 houses swept away at Canton, October.

—— A number of fires, kindled by incendiaries, occur in various parts of the country, December.

1834 M. de Bourrienne, the celebrated biographer of Napoleon, died, February 7.

—— General Lafayette died at Paris, May 20, aged 77.

—— Don Miguel capitulates and withdraws from Portugal, and Don Pedro and his daughter, Donna Maria the young queen, enter Lisbon, May.

—— Slavery abolished in the British Colonies, Aug. 1.

—— Poor Law Amendment Bill passed, August 8.

—— Don Pedro, regent of Portugal, died, September 24, when Donna Maria was declared of age.

—— The British Houses of Parliament destroyed by fire, October 16.

—— The duke of Gloucester died, Nov. 30, aged 58.

1835 Ferdinand I., Emperor of Austria, March 2.

—— The duke of Leuchtenberg, son of Eugene Beauharnois, marries Donna Maria, queen of Portugal, and died in about a month after, March 28.

—— Zumalacarreguy, the Carlist commander-in-chief, died of his wounds, June 16.

—— William Cobbett, M.P., died, June 18, aged 69.

—— Fieschi and two others attempt to assassinate Louis Philippe, by means of an instrument composed of 25 gun-barrels. The king escaped, but Marshal Mortier (duke of Treviso) was killed, and many others were killed and wounded, June 28.

—— Municipal Corporations Bill passed, September 9.

—— David Salomons, Esq. elected one of the Sheriffs of the city of London, and sworn in October 1. He was the first Jew who ever served that office.

—— The first stone of the City of London School, Honey-lane, was laid by Lord Brougham, Oct. 21.

—— Great fire at New York, when property valued at 20,000,000 dollars was destroyed, Dec. 15.

—— Sir John Sinclair, Bart. died, December 21.

—— The first Municipal Elections in the corporate towns throughout England, December 25.

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1836 Ferdinand Augustus, duke of Saxe-Cobourg, cousin to the Princess Victoria, married to Donna Maria, queen of Portugal, by proxy, January 1.

—— Madame Maria Letitia Bonaparte, mother of the emperor Napoleon. She was born at Ajaccio, Corsica, August 24, 1750; died at Rome, Feb. 2.

—— James Mill, the historian of India, died, June 23.

—— The Spanish Constitution of 1812 proclaimed at Madrid, and accepted by the Queen Regent, August 12.

—— The "British Association for the Advancement of Science," held their first meeting at Bristol, August 22.

—— The Portuguese Constitution of 1820 proclaimed at Lisbon, and accepted by the queen, Donna Maria, September 9.

—— Charles X. ex-king of France, died at Goritz, in Hungary, November 6, aged 82.

—— A balloon, with three persons in the car attached to it, ascended from London, and after having been eighteen hours in the air, descended at Weilburgh, in the duchy of Nassau, Nov. 7.

1837 Gustavus, ex-king of Sweden, died, Feb. 7.

—— The United States recognise the independence of Texas, March 8.

—— The Princess Victoria attains her majority (18), May 24.

—— William IV. died, June 20, aged 72.

—— Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland.

—— London and Birmingham Railway partially opened, July 20.

—— The king of Hanover (duke of Cumberland), by letters-patent, abrogates the Hanoverian Constitution granted by his brother, William IV. and restores the old form of government.

—— Parliament opened in person by the Queen, Nov. 20.

1838 The Royal Exchange burnt, January 10.

—— The Earl of Eldon died, aged 87, January 13.

—— The Grand Seigneur abolished the dignity of Grand Vizier, and the court over which he presided.

—— The "Great Western" steam-ship arrived at New York in fifteen days from Bristol, being the first

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vessel that crossed the Atlantic by the power of steam only, June 17.

1838 Queen Victoria crowned at Westminster Abbey, June 28.

175,000 Newspapers are forwarded to the country on this day by the Post-office, July 2.

—— The Emperor Ferdinand of Austria crowned at Milan, grants an amnesty to all state offenders, and persons exiled are restored to their houses and fortunes, Sept. 6.

—— The London and Birmingham Railway opened throughout the entire line, and the journey of 112 miles is performed in four hours and fourteen minutes, September 17.

THE END.

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BSB Bayerische StaatsBibliothek

MDZ Münchener DigitalisierungsZentrum Digitale Bibliothek

Woodhouselee, Alexander Fraser Tytler,

Elements of general History, ancient and modern To which are added a comparative view of ancient and modern geography and a table of chronology, with two maps

London 1813

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